AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION,

AND

JOURNAL OF LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

VOL. I.—PART II.—NO. VI.

JUNE, 1831.

Art. I.—Sketches of Hofwyl.

Letter XVII.

My Dear Friend—In former letters I have mentioned the general means employed for the physical and moral welfare of the pupils of Hofwyl.

But it is obviously important to *imitate the unceasing vigilance*, as well as the general provisions of *Divine Providence*. A school is not a machine which may be wound up and left to its own movements. The educator should watch over every step of his pupils, with constant, but often invisible care, in order to see the effect of regulations and circumstances on their bodies and their minds, to observe the propensities which develope themselves, and to restrain their action at the moment that they begin to endanger the purity or the safety of the individual or his companions. Where he cannot be personally present, guardians, approaching them in age, should attend them, in all their occupations and amusements. Every suitable occasion should be seized to impress moral and religious principles, and to point out the inevitable results of good and bad conduct. Such lessons will have an influence when given at the moment, and in

view of the act, which no subsequent description, no theoretical illustration, could possibly exert.

In this view, the pupils of Hofwyl are continually attended by one of their educators, who observes and aids them in their studies, who accompanies, and generally joins them in their sports and recreations, and lodges in their bedchamber, to watch over their conduct and provide for their wants at night. He does not retire until all have sunk into repose. He rises first in the morning; and does not leave the chamber until all have descended to their occupations.

By this constant course of watchfulness and familiar intercourse, the educator has the opportunity, not only of learning the character of his pupils, but of inspiring them with confidence and affection for their guardians, *which are the great instruments of government and discipline in the institutions of Fellenberg.*

These feelings are not to be produced by false indulgence, and much less, by passing over faults unnoticed. The sense of right in a child, is more acute than we are disposed to imagine, although he may not always be in possession of language to express it. But he quickly perceives a deviation from consistency, and loses that respect which is the only sure foundation of personal attachment. On the contrary, a well applied punishment, will often do more to gain the affections of a child, than the most lavish fondness.

The ebullitions of childish impatience and passion should therefore be endured, in the child, as well as the infant, without assuming severity of manner, or exerting authority, or inflicting punishment. Above all, they should never be received as personal insults or injuries; and the child should never imagine that his educator is influenced in his discipline, by the same passions he himself feels. On the contrary, he should be led to see that he cannot affect him by such treatment; that all his petulance rather excites pity than anger, and thus gives him no occasion to deem himself of importance.

Reproof at the moment is often useless. It is usually better to wait until passion is subsiding, and the reaction of reason and better feelings begin. Mild representations and friendly expostulation are then to be applied in place of authority and punishments. They are far more effectual, because they reach the source of the evil, instead of cutting off the streams. The child, for example, whose insolence has its origin in vanity or pride, is not likely to be reformed by punishing the

numerous petty offences to which they give rise. But in directing his attention and our efforts to the false state of feeling which gives birth to them, we shall be much more successful in convincing him of his fault and in leading to its correction.

In this method of discipline, the teacher, instead of repulsing the pupil, attracts him and gains his confidence. He leads him to disclose his feelings, and thus to lay himself open to the observation and correction of him whom he learns to regard as a friendly adviser, and not an arbitrary master. In the words of Fellenberg, 'The educator should be like the Saviour, the child's best friend, and not his tyrant.'

Patience and perseverance are indispensable to secure success in this mode of education; and the educator must *be master of himself*, if he means to influence his pupils. One of the educators of Hofwyl observed to me, in reply to the question, how far such mild measures should be carried before resorting to severe ones, '*In all which relates to puerile faults, mild means, are the only effectual means.* If the pupil repeats a fault of this kind twenty times, let the preceptor remind him of it with perfect calmness, and assure him, with the same aspect, that his reproof shall be repeated twenty times more, if necessary. This perpetual repetition becomes more painful to the pupil, than a momentary punishment. He becomes weary of his fault, and I have succeeded in this mode when other measures have entirely failed. On the other hand, the pain which is inflicted either by corporal punishment or by those shocks to the feelings produced by severity of manner, agitates the offender so much, that his reason no longer acts calmly. The effect passes speedily by; and in its place we often find the reaction of wounded pride or disappointed appetite, exciting only anger at the executioner, instead of penitence for the fault.'

In short, the educator should always possess and cherish the *genuine parental spirit* towards his pupils. It should be interwoven with all his instructions, with all his requisitions, with all his treatment. This spirit the pupils will not fail to discover; and it will almost invariably awaken a corresponding filial regard on their part.

He should exhibit this spirit by seizing every opportunity, and employing every means in his power, not only to render his pupils wiser and better, and thus happier, but also to promote their innocent enjoyment. Such exhibitions of it are given at

Hofwyl in the attention paid to provide for their amusement, in their gardens, workshops, and play ground — in the concerts and occasional festivals — and in their annual journeys.

The educator is always the spectator and often the sharer of the sports of the pupils. He endeavors to avoid that austerity which keeps them at a distance, and renders confidence impossible, without descending to that familiarity which might impair the respect which is their due. It is indeed difficult to maintain this proper medium; but its importance is too generally acknowledged to require any illustration.

But care must be taken never to treat the child as a plaything, by that *fondling*, which is too often considered the evidence of affection, and thus reduce him to the level of a favorite animal. The parent or *guardian must assume the infantile character*, and *be the companion* of the sports of his children. If he finds himself incapable, like Henry of France, of becoming the horse of his child, if occasion requires, he will fulfil his task but imperfectly.

The educators of Hofwyl deem it of no small importance not only to *avoid all appearance of irritation and impatience*, but to *maintain a uniform cheerfulness* of demeanor with their pupils in governing, as well as in instructing. Commands given with cheerfulness, are usually obeyed with alacrity; when perhaps the same directions, announced with a gloomy and severe manner, would excite discontent, and rouse the disposition to resistance. They endeavor by this, and other means, to maintain a spirit of hope and cheerfulness in the pupils themselves. It renders labour more easy and more successful; and privations and inconveniences more tolerable.

They also endeavor to gain their confidence, by listening to their requests and their complaints with patience, in the full conviction, that the views of a child, *must of course be often imperfect and unreasonable.* They have then the opportunity of correcting them, and of aiding them to judge more rationally on another occasion. At the same time, they learn the means of access to their hearts; and may hope to be informed without reserve of the progress and state of their feelings at all times; advantages which would be entirely lost, if they attempted to suppress authoritively, and abruptly, these exhibitions of their feelings, on account of the little marks of petulance or impatience which may attend them.

At the same time, there are many occasions when the nature of the subject is such, that explanations would only perplex the

pupil — when it is impracticable, or unsuitable to give him the reasons for their directions — when it is necessary to require and enforce immediate obedience. Here they must imitate the occasional course of Divine Providence, in *peremptory orders, grounded on their superior knowledge, and enforced by their authority and superior power;* and thus teach the pupil the *duty*, and *form the habit* of exercising *implicit confidence*, in those under whose care he is placed, and *unconditional obedience* to their commands, when they are absolute, even when he cannot see the reason. There are moments in the course of education, and even of life, when the delay which reasoning demands, would expose us to the danger which it is intended to avert; and where we must learn to yield to authority, without a question. It is not to be doubted as a single example that the difficulty of submitting in this manner, *implicitly* to the direction of a *skilful person*, in disease or in a moment of danger, has caused the loss of many a life and limb, and that this has often arisen from the defects of early education.

It is not less important in modifying the character, to engage the pupil himself in the task. Force — compulsion — reach only the exterior. The heart — the character — remains unchanged. The disposition suppressed by such means, only waits a favorable opportunity to develope itself anew. Coercion, can, with propriety, only be employed to restrain open violence or obstinate resistance to public order; or in cases where the resolution of the pupil is so enfeebled by habit, or the strength of a propensity, that he requires exterior aid. Even in the worst cases he should, if possible, be made to feel the want of it, and accept it as a kindness, instead of revolting against it as an act of authority. It has more than once occurred at Hofwyl, that pupils in these circumstances, *from the habit of being treated with mildness, and from feeling confidence instead of fear of their educators*, have been led to solicit the aid or discipline of which they felt the need, or whose good effects they had seen in the case of others.

But in general, the *pupil is taught and required to govern himself* — to exercise one sentiment in correcting another. He is made to feel a responsibility for himself, and to regard his educator only as a mentor, whose duty it is to warn him of his faults, and his dangers, but who imposes no arbitrary restraints, and exerts no despotic power which can interfere with his rational liberty.

Art. II — Jacotot's System of Instruction.

My Dear Friend — I have described to you the great principles of Jacotot's system of *intellectual emancipation*, as he terms it, which he claims to be of universal application, and sufficient to render every man capable of being a self-educator. Among the various new modes of acquiring *a knowledge of language*, which the present age of improvement furnishes, it may not be uninteresting to you to have an outline of his. The following are the leading principles on which it is founded.

Language is a matter of convention, of authority, and not of reason.

A thorough acquaintance with any particular language, is therefore to be formed only by *the study of the best authors* in that language.

The grammar of a language is only the general statements of facts, of *the actual state* of the language as found in its standard writers. So that the pupils of Jacotot are directed first to learn *the facts*, and afterwards to verify the rules or observations of the grammarians by their own knowledge.

Become master of a *few pages*, and you will have all the *sounds* of the language.

Become thoroughly acquainted with *one standard work*, by oral or written translation, and you will have *all the important constructions* of the language, and of a large proportion of its words, so that you can read other authors with ease.

Commit a sufficient portion of this to memory, and you have a perpetual authority to which you can refer.

Classify the facts and you will have a grammar. Examine all the ideas of a classical work like Telemachus, in French, their bearing and connexions, and you will find it a guide to a vast extent of knowledge.

His general maxim is, *Learn one book in the language thoroughly, refer all the rest to it by your own reflection, and ascertain the correctness of others by what you know yourself.*

Learn by heart, for instance, *the first six books of Telemaque, and repeat it incessantly. Refer everything else to this, and you will certainly learn the language.*

The pupil must learn every day a sentence, a paragraph, or a page, according to the strength of his memory; and he must

never fail to repeat all that he has previously learned, from the first word of the book. The general repetition of the six books, after they are learned, must take place at least twice a week. He need not commit to memory the remaining eighteen; but he must read every day some pages of them, with a degree of attention sufficient to enable him to *relate* what they contain.

In defence of a plan so much at variance with the views both of the old and new school of education, Jacotot adduces one of his favorite maxims — 'Before we can *comprehend*, we must *apprehend*' — We must first *learn*, and then *understand*. Ideas must be fully and clearly presented to the mind by the memory, before they can be compared. We owe all our knowledge to memory; for without this faculty, the moment we close our eyes on external nature, the mind would be a perfect blank. We do not learn facts by intuition; nor do we arrive at general notions, except from facts. Perception supplies us with these, and memory retains them for the use of the mind. We must not forget to follow Nature's plan, with respect to those things which we find it necessary to commit to its custody.

No ideas can long be retained in the memory, which are not deeply impressed by repetition. Were it not for constant repetition, we might even forget our own names, as we frequently do those of strangers. This exercise has been hitherto far too much neglected in education, though even the greatest men, — and, in fact, all who have attained to true and solid learning, — have invariably availed themselves of its powerful aid. Permanent retention can, in fact, be ensured by no other process. Repetition, therefore, is considered of vital importance in the system of Jacotot; not a mere repetition of the lesson of the preceding day, or even week, as is the case in some schools, but of everything previously committed to memory. Nothing is omitted. It follows from this, that the facts learned and comprehended, are seen by the mind, not merely as detached, insulated points, but in all the varieties of analogy, succession, and consequence.

This practice, however tedious and mechanical it may appear, is not without high authority. In conformity with the above assertions, it is stated that Porson, one of the most distinguished Greek scholars in England, ascribed his wonderful facility in reference, to the practice of repeating the same Greek verses a great many times. Vauquelin, the celebrated French

chemist, while an apothecary's clerk, resolved on learning Latin. He began with committing several books of the Æneid to memory, and by this method, we are assured, attained a thorough knowledge of the language. If any reliance could be placed on the certificates of gentlemen who have visited the schools conducted on this plan, or on the specimens and statements which I myself received, this method has been attended with signal success wherever the suitable degree of effort and perseverance exists.

I ought not to conceal, that it is charged by some with the tendency to make young pupils mechanical in their acquisitions, which indeed it would appear to have at first sight. It is but justice to say, however, that I could discover nothing of this kind in my short visit to Louvain; and that the greatest care is taken to obviate this tendency by the subsequent exercises, of which the following is a sketch.

The master who pursues this method of the *Universal Instruction*, tells his pupils nothing. He explains nothing, insists upon nothing, affirms nothing. The pupil is taught to see everything himself, and to make his own reflections, not to receive those made by others.

In pursuance of this method, the pupil is directed to read the two first paragraphs of the first book. He is told to pay the utmost possible attention to them; and the teacher then puts questions to him on every word and phrase, on each paragraph, and on the two together. To illustrate this, take the first sentence in Telemachus.

'The grief of Calypso for the departure of Ulysses, would admit of no comfort.'

The teacher asks — Who was gone? The pupil answers — Ulysses. Who was grieved? — Calypso. What was the cause of Calypso's grief? — The departure of Ulysses. Did Calypso love Ulysses? — Yes. How do you know that? — Because her grief for his departure would admit of no comfort. Was she slightly grieved, or very much? — Very much. What do we call that grief which admits of no comfort? — Inconsolable.

Thus the interrogation must be continued, throughout the whole six books, until the entire scene, the actors, the action performed, the cause and object of the action, the modifying circumstances, &c., are all distinctly in view. This mode puts the pupil in full possession of every idea that is brought before him, and, as he finds himself able to answer every ques-

tion, he gains confidence as he advances, and perceives every difficulty vanish before him. In the opinion of Jacotot nine tenths of *the actual waste of time* in the common method, arises from the pupils obtaining an indistinct perception of many things, which lie in the mind in a disjointed and disorderly state, because *the mutual bond of connexion* is hidden in the obscurity which veils them. Especial care must, however, be taken, that no questions be asked, the answers to which are not to be obtained from the book that the pupil knows.

A very interesting *exercise* consists in the pupil's *defining* words by the comparison of passages solely derived from his model book. Thus, suppose he were asked —What is the meaning of the word *Spring?* He answers —'Spring is that season in which "fragrant flowers begin to bloom," "The verdure to rise under the feet," "The birds to sing,"' &c.

As the pupil advances, he is exercised in generalising, that is, speaking of a particular fact, in a manner applicable to *all facts of the same nature.* What do you perceive in the whole of this paragraph? — Grief. What is grief? — The following is the reply of a child who had just commenced the study of his own language. 'Grief is a passion of which we become sensible after the loss of any one dear to us. The person who experiences grief seeks solitude, ceases to take delight in the most agreeable places, and repulses the attentions of those who would willingly administer solace.' Why do you say so? Because, *after the departure of Ulysses, the grief of Calypso would admit of no comfort; she often walked alone on the flowery turf; she ceased to take delight in her beautiful Isle; she noticed not the flowery turf; she thought of nothing but Ulysses; her attendant nymphs dared not to address her.*

The composition of the pupil, as in the above definition, is generally submitted to *three* distinct readings. After the first, during which the pupil is made to pay great attention to *the manner* in which he reads, it is examined as a whole. After the second, the pupil gives an account of *the facts* upon which he has written. And, after the third, particular attention is paid to individual words, and to improprieties of diction, if they occur.

Every expression not authorized by his model, even though perfectly correct, is inadmissible. This restriction ensures *propriety of language*, for he is obliged to seek his phraseology from passages which he well understands, and *the ideas*

arising from which are, of consequence, distinctly associated in his mind, with their appropriate *verbal signs.* Afterwards, when he has acquired sufficient experience to pursue his way alone, nothing will prevent him from employing or imitating the expressions of other eminent authors.

Another very important *exercise* is made to depend upon what Jacotot calls *the oratorical artifice of repetition.* For example — Of what does the first paragraph of Telemachus consist? — Of the fact, that Calypso's grief for the departure of Ulysses was inconsolable: it therefore contains three things; 1, Calypso; 2, her inconsolable grief; 3, the departure of Ulysses. The pupil is then required to prove that his answer is correct, by showing how each of the several portions of the paragraph refers to one of these leading ideas.

Art. III. — Teacher's Festival in Germany.

We extract the following from a recent German periodical on education, to show the spirit of teachers under the influence of seminaries and associations. It is in the form of an address from one of the members of the association.

A festival of common school teachers is a phenomenon of modern date. Fifty years ago, the thought of such a festival would scarcely have entered the mind of any man, even in his fondest dreams concerning the education of the people. But yet it has occurred; not as the result of momentary excitement, but as the regular progress of the age. Preparation for it was made in the associations of teachers. By means of these, teachers were united in one common effort, and the welfare and misfortune of each teacher became the welfare or misfortune of the whole, in the spirit of that beautiful maxim; 'All for one and one for all.'

It was on the morning of the ninth of June, that teachers assembled themselves from hill and dale, far and near, in a spacious hall prepared for them. As soon as a considerable number had collected, the festival was opened with a song of welcome, and seldom is a finer or more imposing choir of musicians heard on such an occasion. Mr Dallmeier, as the president of the festival, received the teachers with a cordial greeting, and an address, containing a historical representation of

the origin and progress of these festivals for nine years past, was listened to with great attention. A very interesting address was then made on the theme which had been appointed at the preceding festival, which will be published in accordance with the universal desire. After this intellectual occupation, the demands of the body were next attended to, and the teachers sat down in a cheerful spirit to the entertainment. An appropriate table song elevated their hearts. In the afternoon statutes were adopted for the regulation of these festivals. A premium was offered for the next year for the best discussion of the question — How far the elementary schools ought to extend their course of instruction. A number of officers were then chosen.

The afternoon was passed in friendly, instructive, and sometimes pensive conversation, alternated with the singing of appropriate hymns and songs; and in the joy of our hearts we could have wished to bid the sun stand still; but the day rolled inexorably on, with the festival and all its pleasures in its train. But fancy would present its delightful image till its next return; till then, my dear companions, let us labour cheerfully in our calling; farewell. The next year, if Providence permit, we shall see each other again.

Art. IV. — Elementary Education in Europe.

It is generally felt, especially in the United States, that 'one fact is worth a thousand theories.' In conformity with this maxim, the Editor has felt it his duty to fill the pages of this work, as far as possible, with details of facts and accounts of plans and methods whose results have been ascertained; rather than to occupy them, to any considerable extent, with speculations, and especially with his own theoretical opinions. His anxiety has been, rather to furnish data, on which those who are so happy as to be engaged in the immediate business of instruction may found their reasonings and experiments, and he should be highly gratified to receive accounts of any results to which these statements may have led.

No speculations, however acute, can be compared in value, to the lessons of experience — and this experience is prized in proportion to the time and space over which it extends. Our own national existence has been but brief; and although our progress in all that relates to exterior prosperity has been unexampled, we have not yet had time to organize a corps of literature, or to give to education the character of a science. Many most valuable improvements have been introduced by individuals; but hitherto the efforts of instructers have been isolated. No organs of communication with the public have presented themselves.

On these accounts we have few domestic materials in our hands on this

subject, although we have carefully sought and urgently requested them; while an ample store of plans and methods, and their results during *a long course of experience*, are found in Europe. We are aware that there is much sensitiveness in our country in regard to foreign improvements—and have received some hints of the danger of exciting it. But we will not believe that our national vanity is so gross, or our views so contracted that valuable lessons will be rejected because they did not originate on this side of the Atlantic. We again request communications, especially of a practical nature, as to methods of instruction and education, and improvements in schools, from teachers, and parents, and friends of education; and shall rejoice to present to foreign correspondents the evidences which we are persuaded exists of our progress. In the mean time we shall deem it our duty to go on, and collect from *every quarter* such facts and plans and results, as are adapted to bring up and illustrate the great principles on which improvements in education should be conducted, and the necessity and importance of suitable legislative provisions. In this view, as well as in reference to its value, as a historical document, we present the following extracts from the London Quarterly Journal of Education, in regard to the state of elementary education in Europe. It is calculated indeed to gratify our national feeling, as it shows, very strikingly, that while we have to regret that our schools have not more thorough methods of instruction, their benefits are extended, in many parts of the United States to a greater proportion of the population than in the most favored countries of Europe.

Scotland.

Scotland has long been distinguished for the general education of the people in parish schools. The foundation of the system was laid in 1494, by a law requiring all barons and substantial freeholders to send their children to school from the age of six to nine years, and then to other seminaries, that the country might have persons capable of filling civil offices.* In 1615, the bishops were empowered to establish a school in every parish; and in 1696, the defects of this law were supplied by another, which provided for the means of support. The landlords of each parish were required to build a schoolhouse and a dwellinghouse for the master and to pay him a given salary, at first from £5 to £11, and, subsequently, as the value of money diminished, from £16 to £22 per annum. In addition to this the teacher receives fees from the pupils from 2s 6d to 7s 6d per quarter. The moderation of the fees brought the advantages of a *paid*, and therefore *prized* education, within the reach of almost every individual—and it is considered a misfortune to be unable to procure it.

It has been usually expected that a Scotch parish schoolmaster, besides being a person of unexceptionable character, should be able to instruct his pupils in the reading of English, in the arts of writing and arithmetic, the more common and useful branches of practical mathematics, and that he should be possessed of such classical attainments as might qualify him for teaching Latin and the rudiments of Greek.

*How important then, is this subject in a country where *every man* may become a civil officer!

It would be no easy matter to exaggerate the beneficial effects of the elementary instruction obtained at parish schools, on the habits and industry of the people of Scotland. It has given to that part of the empire an importance to which it has no claim, either from fertility of soil or amount of population. The universal diffusion of schools, and the consequent education of the people, have opened to all classes paths to wealth, honor, and distinction. Persons of the humblest origin have raised themselves to the highest eminence in every walk of ambition, and a spirit of forethought and energy has been widely disseminated.

At the period when the act of 1696 for establishing parish schools was passed, Scotland, which had suffered greatly from misgovernment and religious persecutions, under the reign of Charles II. and his brother, James II., was in the most unprosperous condition. 'There are,' says Fletcher, 'at this day in Scotland, *two hundred thousand people begging from door to door.* Many murders have been discovered amongst them; and they are a most unspeakable oppression to poor tenants. These are such outrageous disorders, that it would be better for the nation that they were sold for the gallies or the West Indies, than that they should continue any longer to be a burden and a curse upon us.'

No country ever rose so rapidly from so frightful an abyss. In the autumn circuits or assizes for the year 1757, no one was found guilty in any part of the country, of a capital crime. And *now*, notwithstanding the increase of population, and a vast influx of paupers from Ireland, *there are very few beggars in the country; nor has any assessment been imposed for the support of the poor, except in some of the large towns, and in the counties adjoining England;* and even there it is so light as scarcely to be felt. This is a great and signal change. We cannot, indeed, go quite so far as those who ascribe it entirely to the establishment of the parochial system of education. Certainly, however, it was the diffusion of education that enabled the people to avail themselves of other changes in the state of the country; and which has, in consequence, led to a far more rapid improvement than has taken place in any other European country.

Prussia.

Of the continental states of Europe, Switzerland and Holland are among the best furnished with the means of obtaining elementary instruction; and it is gratifying to observe the efforts that have lately been made to diffuse education throughout other countries. Frederick the Great of Prussia, whose fame as a warrior has obscured his talents as a statesman, has the distinguished merit

of being the first continental sovereign who endeavored to bring education within the reach of all classes of his subjects. The late President of the United States, John Quincy Adams, has, in his Letters on Silesia, given a very full and interesting account of the Seminaries which Frederick caused to be established in every village of Silesia, and which have since been copied in other states, in consequence of the experience of their good effects. We are sure we shall gratify our readers by laying before them a few extracts from Mr Adams's valuable and interesting work.

'At the time of the conquest of Silesia, education had seldom been made an object of the concern of governments; and Silesia, like the rest of Europe, was but wretchedly provided either with schools or teachers. In the small towns and villages, the schoolmasters were so poorly paid, that they could not subsist without practising some other trade besides their occupation as instructers; and they usually united the character of the village fiddler with that of the village schoolmaster. Even of these, there were so few, that the children of the peasants in general, throughout the province, were left untaught. This was especially the case in Upper Silesia. Frederick issued an ordinance, that a school should be kept in every village, and that a competent subsistence should be provided for the schoolmaster, by the joint contribution of the lord of the village and of the tenants. The superintendence of the schools was prescribed as the duty of the clergy.

'Frederick derived important aid in the prosecution of this meritorious plan, from Felbiger, an Augustine monk, who travelled to different countries to obtain an acquaintance with the best modes of teaching, and under whose superintendence, pattern schools were established at Breslau, Glatz, and other places, which all the candidates for the situation of schoolmaster are obliged to attend.

'After all these preparatory measures had been carried into effect, an ordinance was published in the year 1765, prescribing the mode of teaching as adopted in the seminaries, and the manner in which the clergy should superintend the efficacious establishment of the system. The regulations of this ordinance prove the earnestness with which the King of Prussia laboured to spread the benefits of useful knowledge among his subjects. The teachers are directed to give plain instruction, and upon subjects applicable to the ordinary concerns of life; *not merely to load the memory of their scholars with words*, but to make *things intelligible to their understanding, and to habituate them to the use of their own reason*, by explaining every object of the lesson, so that the children themselves may be able to explain it, upon examination. The candidates for school-keeping must give specimens of their ability, by teaching at one of the schools connected with the

seminary, in presence of the professors, that they may remark and correct any thing defective in the candidate's method.

The school tax must be paid by the lord and tenants, without distinction of religions. The boys must all be sent to school from their sixth to their thirteenth year, whether the parents are able to pay the school tax or not. For the poor, the school money must be raised by collections. Every parent or guardian who neglects to send his child or pupil to school, without sufficient cause, is obliged to pay a double tax, for which the guardians shall have no allowance. Every curate must examine, weekly, the children of the school in his parish. A general examination must be held annually by the deans of the districts of the schools within their respective precincts; and a report of the condition of the schools, the talents and attention of the schoolmasters, the state of the buildings, and the attendance of the children made to the office of Vicar General, who is bound to transmit all these reports to the royal domain offices, from which orders are issued to supply the deficiencies in the schools. This system was at first prepared only for the Catholic schools; but it was afterwards adopted by most of the Lutheran consistories.

The system had at first many difficulties to contend with. The indolence of the Catholic clergy was averse to the new and troublesome duty imposed upon them. Their zeal was alarmed at the danger arising from this diffusion of light to the stability of their church; they considered alike the spirit of innovation, and the spirit of inquiry as their natural enemies. But the firmness of the government overcame every obstacle. There are now more than 3500 schools established in the province. Before the Seven Years' war, there had not been more than one periodical journal or gazette published in the province at one time; while there are now no fewer than seventeen newspapers and magazines, which appear by the day, the week, the month, and the quarter; and many of them upon subjects generally useful, and which contain very valuable information on all the most interesting topics of discussion.

The effects of this system of education on the condition of the people have been equally striking and beneficial. Agriculture and manufactures have been vastly improved and extended. Silesia is, indeed, at this moment, one of the most flourishing districts of the continent. The revolution effected by the introduction of the system of universal instruction is stated by the native writers, quoted by Mr Adams, to have been not less important, though of a slower and milder character than that of Luther. The habits of the people have been signally improved; and they have become, as every one knows, among the most intelligent, orderly, and industrious in Europe.

To be continued.

Art. V. — Infant School of Geneva — No. II.

BY J. MONOD.

Concerning the Direction of the Establishment.

Our school being an asylum for mere infants, there exists the greatest necessity that they receive that share of physical attention which their feeble state demands, and which may compensate for the care they would have received from their parents. But as no one is better adapted to this purpose than a mother, we deem it indispensable that a woman should be attached to the establishment.

In the direction of our school, we could better dispense with the services of a male, than a female instructer. In England, schools of this kind are sometimes conducted solely by females. We think, however, that a man ought to superintend, especially if the number of pupils is large, as he will have greater success in infusing into the school a love of order and habits of precision. Three persons are attached to the establishment at Geneva. Their duties are as follows: —

The master has the general superintendence of the school and sustains the responsibility. He keeps three registers, the moral register, the register of discipline, and that of accountability. He receives or admits the infants, and has power, in certain cases provided by the regulations, to dismiss them. In methods of instruction he has great latitude. In regulating the seasons of occupation he is aided by the advice of the gentlemen of the committee; but *is not permitted to devote more than twenty minutes to each lesson.* The principal female instructer is subordinate to the superintendent, under the inspection of the committee. She oversees them in regard to cleanliness, and to the peculiar wants of infancy. She has the charge of the most elementary part of the instruction of the youngest pupils; she also instructs the girls in knitting and sewing, during such a portion of the time as is determined by the advance in the order of their lessons. Besides these duties she has the oversight of a female in a lower department, who is charged with attending to the physical wants of the children, and also performs the office of porter. She carries home such infants as may be taken ill during the day; takes charge of the provisions, and distributes them among the children; and when

not otherwise occupied, assists the principal female instructer in the discharge of her duties. An active and agreeable domestic may perform these offices. We think, however, that a domestic, though necessary to us, might be dispensed with in smaller establishments.

Children of both sexes are received from three years, and even younger, up to six years of age. They pay the moderate sum of twentyone cents a month. The pastors of Geneva, take upon them the care of a great number of poor children who are unable to pay for their tuition. No food is given the children, except that which is furnished by the parents. As a reward, however, for the little labours they peform, we sometimes distribute among them some of the fruits of the garden.

The usual number of children present, is from 90 to 100. It has been greater, but we have not been slow enough in adding new pupils to our school; and experience has forcibly taught us that in the commencement of an establishment of this kind, the number of pupils should be small.

Of Order.

We have first to describe that external or material order which exists independently of the children.

Material order comprehends the *arrangement*, *symmetric* and *regular*, of everything pertaining to the establishment. There is regularity in the *march* of the school; in the *exercises*, which always follow one another in a certain order; in the arrangement of the methods of instruction, and even in things of no considerable moment. The following rules tend to establish order.

1. From the 1st of April to the 30th of September, the school is opened in the morning precisely at 8 o'clock; and from Oct. 1st to March 31st, at nine.

2. From April 1st to September 30th, it is closed at 6 P. M.; and from Oct. 1st to March 31st, at four.

3. The children must be present at the school, morning and evening, regularly.

4. Pupils will be received only on the 1st and 5th days of each month.

5. It is expected that the tuition fees, of 21 cents a month to each child, will be punctually paid at the close of each month. Delay in this payment, will lead to the dismissal of the child.

6. When a month has been commenced, whatever may have

been the causes of a child's absence the whole month must be paid for.

7. The door will remain open for entrance half an hour only from the time of commencing school, after which it will be shut, and those who arrive later, will be obliged to return home.

8. Persons wishing to visit the school, cannot be admitted unless accompanied by one of the members of the committee.

9. From half past eleven to one o'clock; and from four to half past four, the door will be opened so that the children can go out, dine, and take luncheon. Each infant may, however, bring his food for the day.

10. No person who conducts a child to school is allowed to stop there on any pretext whatever, or detain either of the instructers, by conversation.

11. Every infant who comes to school with its hands dirty, head filthy, or badly combed, hair too long, or clothes torn, will be immediately sent back to its parents.

To these rules we must add a decision recently made by the committee of the school, that they will receive no child who has not been vaccinated, or who is suspected of having any of those diseases commonly considered contagious.

We deem it necessary to describe the situation, and external and internal arrangement of the schoolhouse. Although we do not present it as a model, yet, in its general arrangement, it offers many facilities for enabling the children to perform their exercises with ease, and freedom of movement.

General Arrangement — Interior Distribution.

1st. The chamber of entrance, where the hats, baskets, outer garments, and other things which the children may bring with them to school, are deposited. Benches are placed around the sides of this chamber designed as seats. Here the children are examined in regard to cleanliness. Those who are dirty are washed, &c. All their little wants and troubles, here receive that attention which they require. When they cannot go into the garden, their games and recreations are carried on in this chamber. It serves also as an apartment for the youngest of the children; for those who are newly entered; and those who are incapable of following the usual exercises of the principal chamber. It is under the supervision of the principal female instructer, who amuses them and keeps them occupied with various little exercises. On account of the division of the

children, this chamber is of great importance. The walls are adorned with engravings in natural history, designed both to instruct and amuse. The floor is made of very hard wood, that their steps may not sound so loud as they otherwise would. The stove or fire place, made of glazed bricks, warms both chambers. Also a little oven where they can warm over the dinners of the children; but during the summer, a neighbour kindly allows them the use of his oven.

BUILDING AND GROUNDS.

1–2. Windows in the roof.

A. Garden door.

B. Windows.

C. Circles.

D. Desk.

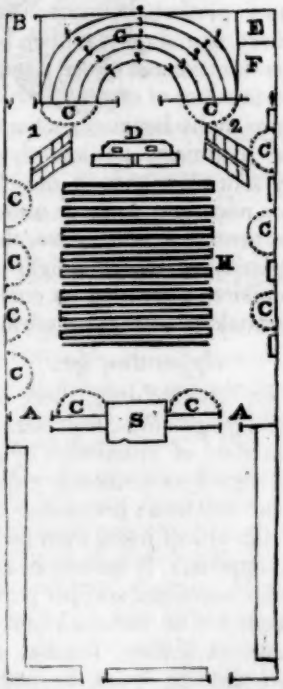
E. Reflecting room.

F. Closet.

G. Gallery.

H. Benches.

S. Stove.



PLAN OF THE BUILDING.

2d. The second chamber, or the 'Hall,' is 32 feet in length, by 21 in breadth. The first chamber is of the same breadth, but 13 feet less in length. The Hall is exclusively devoted to lessons or exercises. It is connected with the first chamber by two doors, with glass windows, and with the garden by a convenient opening to the north, which serves to admit fresh air.

It is lighted by lateral windows, and by openings in the roof (1 and 2.) The extremity of the Hall is occupied by the gallery, (G.) consisting of four semicircular benches, one foot in height, rising one above another. Three rows of little pillars assist the children in mounting the successively ascending steps, and naturally divide the gallery, or amphitheatre, into four sections. Of all our methods of arrangement, this appears to us the best calculated to facilitate the instructions of the teacher, and secure the attention of the children.

Before the gallery is a Desk (D.), where the instructer places himself upon a platform, elevated several inches. On one side of the gallery is a little chamber (E), called the reflecting room; it is uncovered above; the door is of glass. On the other side, is the door of communication with the garden. Before the desk are eight benches, where the children are placed for certain exercises, particularly for writing. Free communication can take place among the children in all parts of the room; this is necessary to favor order in the exercises. When the exercises are not simultaneous, the room can be divided by parallel partitions, whose height should not exceed that of the tallest children; forming an enclosure for the smallest. This division would present great advantages in *marching*.

Apparatus, &c.

In every school for little children, there ought to be a great number of plates and engravings, representing a great variety of objects. The method of instruction by pictures and visible representations, we regard as eminently calculated to develope the intelligence of the children; instructing them less, however, by a knowledge of the object itself, than by the reflections and inquiries which it suggests. It serves as a text for free conversation between the instructer and his pupils. These engravings or representations are of various kinds.

1. Subjects of natural history, familiar to the children, as the horse, the cow, the ass, fruits, vegetables, &c.; animals remarkable for their peculiar forms, habits, instincts, uses, and modes of living. *Our subjects* are, however, drawn from *animated nature* only.

2. The most common and useful arts and trades, as the occupations of the carpenter, cabinet maker, mason, shoemaker, &c. Only one trade should be represented on the same picture. In the first design, the workman is at his labour; his tools and

the materials he employs, ought to be distinct, but not too numerous.

3. Engravings, of moral traits of character, such as are not beyond the capacities and ages of the pupils. The following are a few of our subjects; 'The angry children, and the little peacemaker.' 'Beneficence exercised by a child, who left his play to give alms to a poor person.' 'Disobedience punished.' 'Paternal love, or the two little Swiss lost in the forest.'

4. We have in progress the designs of subjects drawn from sacred history, both of the Old and New Testaments.

Art. VI. — Seminaries for Teachers in Prussia.

The recent resolution of the American Lyceum, recommending the establishment of Seminaries for teachers, as a most important means for the improvement of education, is an indication of increasing interest on this subject, and we hope will excite public attention. We trust, therefore, that the following account of the Seminaries of Prussia, translated from a German periodical of education, will afford seasonable and interesting information.

There were in Prussia, in 1825,* twentyeight public seminaries, for preparing young men to become teachers of common schools. Besides these, there were numerous private institutions of the kind, generally under the superintendence and instruction of individual clergymen. Five of these seminaries are likewise institutions for general education, and receive other pupils, besides those who are candidates for school teachers. To each of those seminaries is attached a model school, which is found to be essential to the perfection of the institution. The arrangements and the degrees of connexion of these schools with the seminaries are, however, very different in the various institutions. In some, the pupils of the seminaries are instructed, in common with the higher classes of the school, with the under classes of which they exercise themselves in giving them instruction. In other seminaries, there is a connexion with village schools, city free schools, or other establishments of common instruction. Some of these schools have their own overseers, who independently direct and oversee the

* In 1828, there were twentyeight seminaries, with 1500 pupils, which furnished 600 teachers annually.

exercises of their pupils; in others, the teachers of the seminaries are connected with the officers of the school in its superintendence. There are also some of these schools, in which the pupils of the seminaries are only admitted as spectators.

These various arrangements may each have their advantages and their defects, which at this time we shall not attempt to specify. We shall only remark that the following things appear to be requisite in these model schools.

1. The principal and the class teachers should be as able as possible; they must be ready and skilful in the treatment of every object of instruction. They must be themselves, not only patterns and guides, but at the same time they must understand how to point out and correct the errors and mistakes into which young teachers are likely to fall, that their establishment may really be what it professes, a model school.

2. In the model-school, only the most simple apparatus, and the most simple means of teaching, and of discipline, must be employed. The young teacher must here learn to execute most things himself, and not rely upon much external support, either from numerous books, or a complicated apparatus of globes, maps, diagrams, &c. prepared to his hand. It is still worse to accustom the candidate for teaching to a great variety of means of discipline. He must learn to govern his class with a look, a gesture, or a word; and these should be his ordinary rewards and punishments. He should become familiar with the various peculiarities of children, so that he may hereafter distinguish them readily, and treat them accordingly. Above all things, he should learn, that he has to make an impression upon the soul, the will, the spirit, and that everything is not to be decided according to the external appearance, or particular actions. Classification according to moral conduct and behaviour, seats of disgrace, books of honor, offices of honor, degrading or promoting by location, black lists, and other numerous inventions of the kind which have been adopted by some teachers, ought never to be introduced or countenanced in model schools, even if we should admit that an intelligent instructer might occasionally have recourse to such means.

3. The term of pupilage, the division into classes, with many other circumstances, are ever various in the different seminaries. In some, the candidates for teachers remain three years; in others, two years; and in several, the period is indefinite.

Where the course is two years, in some instances, there are four classes, and students are received, and some also leave the institution, every six months. Where there is a course of three years, the pupils are received annually. A three years' course, on the whole, is found preferable. The first year should be employed in acquiring knowledge and principles that are indispensible. In the second year, this knowledge is extended and applied to proper objects. During the last year, the practical preparation is particularly attended to, with appropriate exercises.

This regular plan has hitherto been followed in but few seminaries, the greater number having a course of only two years, with two classes. In some, all the pupils are comprised in one class. In such imperfect institutions, everything depends upon the personal qualifications of the principal; and if he succeeds, it is from his ardor, fidelity, and skill, and not from his arrangements, his success proceeds. It is to be wished, by all means, that these institutions might be brought to perfection, though a three years' course, with three classes, is necessarily attended with considerable expense.

In general each of the seminaries has an appropriate building. In most of the institutions, the pupils reside in the building, and board together. This arrangement has a very beneficial influence. Their assembling three times a day, their uniting in daily worship, and their being constantly under the inspection of the officers of the institution, contribute much to order, and to the correctness and prosperity of their habits and deportment.

The expense of the board is generally defrayed wholly, or in part, from the funds of the institution; and the other charges are very small. But where the students support themselves, the expense is almost incredibly light, on account of the great economy of these establishments. In the seminary at Breslau, breakfast, dinner, and supper, are furnished for 2 rthl. 10 sgr. a month (not far from 1 dollar 50 cents.)

Every seminary ought to have its own director, and where it is practicable, it is preferred in Prussia that he should be a clergyman. In some provinces, the pupils when they leave the seminary receive only a conditional recommendation, and it is made their duty to return again within two or three years, for further exercise and trial in the institution, when those who prove worthy are formally invested or recommended as instructers. In others, the students upon their departure, especially

when the overseers are members of the provincial board of schools, are recommended, and first employed as assistant teachers. But perhaps a still better method is, to commit the young man, who has acquired sufficient knowledge, to the care of an able teacher, under whose guidance he may, for one or two years as assistant, acquire experience, and then return to the seminary, and obtain the most extensive instruction in the method of teaching. Practical precepts and suggestions will now have their full influence.

These seminaries, are not very closely connected with the boards of schools appointed by government, though they furnish most of the best teachers that are employed in the schools The connexion with the universities and the gymnasiums is still less. They appear to have principally arisen during the last twentyfive years, and most of them since 1815, after the attention of the government and the public had been particularly turned to the improvement of common schools. The more elevated the standard of instruction, the more necessity there was found for well educated instructers; and these seminaries have thus continued to flourish, and increase in numbers, in proportion to the increased demand for able teachers.

The following are the *branches of instruction* which are taught in the seminaries for teachers of common schools.

Religion; the German language; arithmetic, mental and on the slate; geometry, in its more simple elements; natural philosophy, including natural history, botany, &c.; history, geography, *pedagogics* and *didactics;* drawing, writing, theory of music, and singing. These are taught in the most practical manner, technical terms, and subtle niceties, divisions, and arrangements, are avoided as much as possible. Singing is an indispensable requisite in a German school, and no candidate can be admitted as a teacher without this qualification, unless he is preeminently skilled in every other department of instruction. In this case, which however very rarely occurs, the deficiency of the principal teacher must be supplied by an assistant. Besides singing, the instructers of schools are taught instrumental music, such as the flute, violin, and harpsichord, and are expected to be skilful players on the organ. Instruments and teachers of music are provided for every seminary.

Gardening and the rearing of fruit trees are expected to be

made subjects of instruction and of practice in these seminaries. In the institutions which have a garden, a part of it is used for this purpose. The gardener will therefore contribute his share of instruction.

The succeeding articles of this number, consist of a very minute tabular account of the several seminaries, the number of teachers, pupils, classes, &c. — an edict of government respecting some general regulations for all the seminaries — the particular regulations and constitution of the seminary at Mors, which may be considered as a standard for new institutions of the kind, as well as a model for the imitation of the old — the domestic arrangements of the seminary at Breslaw — with articles of intelligence in reference to the preceding subjects.

It appears that the number of the pupils, in the twentyeight seminaries of teachers, was 1500, of whom 630 were annually recommended as school teachers. To these are to be added 120 from the smaller institutions, so that the whole number of teachers, who annually receive their education in seminaries peculiarly adapted to form instructers, is 750. There are from 21,000 to 23,000 teachers in the common schools of the Prussian dominions, and about 840 new teachers are annually required to supply the vacancies which yearly occur. There are, therefore, not far from 100 new teachers demanded every year, who have not been educated at the seminaries.

School-keeping, in Germany, appears to be a very healthy employment. The teachers pursue the business for life, and like clergymen are settled in particular places, from which they rarely remove. The average of the time, which they are usually able to devote to their professions, is about *thirtythree* years; and they are generally about twentyfour years old, when they engage as instructers

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Art. VII. — Intuitive Instruction.

The following is the sequel of the first lesson on intuitive instruction, begun in our last number.

The Window. We have nothing to say of the color of the window as a whole; but the color of the parts is to be noticed in its place. 'Look at this window;' the teacher at the same

time pointing with a staff to its borders. 'What can you say of the form of the window? Has its form any resemblance to the ceiling, or the floor? In what does the resemblance consist? It has four corners or angles. Consider the distance of the angles from each other. Are all the angles at the same distance from each other? If you are not sure, we will measure with this staff. Who will draw for me the figure of the window upon a slate? I will do it on the black board. Which of these lines are alike? Which are unlike? These vertical or perpendicular lines show the height, and these horizontal or level lines show the breadth of the window. Is the window as broad as it is high? Which is the larger, the breadth or the height of the window? Do you see the lines that run parallel, or at equal distance from each other? Which are these lines? Show me the parallel lines upon the window itself. The window, like the ceiling or floor, is consequently a four sided figure, or quadrangle; but it is an oblong quadrangle, or parallelogram, because the height and breadth are unequal. In an exact square the sides are all equal. But there are more windows here. What is their figure? Repeat after me. All the windows of the room are oblong quadrangles, or parallelograms.'

'This window consists of more than one piece, it has parts.' Here the teacher opens one part of the window, called the sash; 'Which are the principal parts of the window.' A window is supposed, of which the upper sash is smaller than the lower; the upper containing only six, and the lower nine panes of glass. 'These parts are the sashes. How many sashes has this window?' The children should answer in a very distinct manner; the window has two sashes. 'Look very narrowly at the sashes, are they not somewhat like the whole window? They resemble it in being parallelograms, and the upper sash in not being exactly square. Compare the sashes with each other. Are they alike? The upper sash is smaller than the lower sash; the lower sash is larger than the upper sash. You say the lower sash is larger than the upper; is that true? See me draw them here upon the black board. You may do the same upon your slates. Wherein consists their difference? Is the lower sash broader than the upper? Here they are alike; they are of equal breadth. Are they both of equal height? We will measure. See how much higher the lower is, than the upper. If it is higher, it is also larger.'

'Who can tell me the number of sashes in two, three, four, five windows?'

'Let us proceed and examine a single sash of a window. This also consists of various parts, which you can distinguish.' The teacher now mentions the parts in their order; the panes of glass, the frames, the lead, the pulley, the shutters or blinds, the window curtain, cornice, &c. *The panes* — their form is to be considered in the same way as that of the whole window, which is oblong, quadrilateral, or a parallelogram. *The materials* — they are of glass, which is transparent. Why must they be transparent? The number of panes. The remaining parts of the window are to be treated in the same way, mentioning the materials, design, use, &c.

Thus the window is analyzed and considered in all its parts. It still remains to construct it, as we construct the room after we have analyzed it; that is, we must present the window again as a whole, and show how the different parts mutually depend upon each other, and are connected together. The recess of the window is covered by the curtain; the frame is the essential part of the window; on it the pulleys are fixed, by which we move the sashes. The panes are set in the sashes, and are connected to each other by the lead. The spring bolt, or other apparatus, serves to fasten the sashes so that they cannot be opened on the outside.

The teacher thus proceeds to treat of the various objects in the room. We have given these examples expressly to show the process of conducting visible instruction. All the objects in the room, cannot be analyzed with equal facility; and the teacher must pass over such in a more cursory manner. The stove, for instance, may be difficult to be described, as its form is more complicated, perhaps, than that of almost any other article. But we must not shrink from such difficulties, or consult our own ease. Whoever undertakes to teach, will find it indispensable to *take time to prepare himself;* and he will soon perceive materials accumulate on his hands, and that many objects are rich in the means of instruction, which he at first sight imagined to be barren or inexplicable. We must be cautious of protracting a task to an improper length, and by *tediously dwelling* upon a subject, waste all its spirit and divest it of all its interest to the children.

In concluding this first section, it only remains to mention how far we have actually followed the elementary plan, and have remained faithful to the precepts which we have previously sketched for ourselves. We shall be brief in the remarks

we make, for if we undertake to give further examples at length, it will lead us to be too prolix; it is therefore necessary, once for all, to call to mind the preceding directions, which are not only applicable here, but will be found to apply to every part of our future remarks.

We begin by showing the *nearest* objects of sight, such as are found in the school room. Everything must also be shown by the children themselves as far as they are able. That which is not perfectly clear to their view, must be perfectly exhibited by drawings, sketched on the black board. The object, as the room or the window, is first seen as a whole; it is then divided into its parts. After these are found, the object is then *constructed* anew. Hence the process, according to the nature of this department of instruction, is gone through with, *first analytically*, and *afterwards synthetically*. Both the processes of *discovery* and of *exercise* are strongly impressed; the first by careful exertion to investigate the nature of the questions; the last by the teacher's speaking, and the pupils repeating after him his explanations. By repeated inquiries, out of the regular course, the teacher is soon able to discover, whether what he has taught is understood and retained. Religious references may here find a place, as they naturally arise from the character of the lessons.

The same method of teaching prevails through all the subsequent processes. For the teacher, who thoroughly understands the preceding course, further repetition is unnecessary. But when variations are proper we shall endeavor to point them out to the reader.

Art. VIII. — Practical Lessons.

1. Sunday School Lesson.

I was requested by the Superintendent of a Sunday School to converse with a class of little girls, from four to seven years of age. With the permission of the instructer I complied with his request, and the following was the substance of the conversation.

Children, do you love any body? 'Yes.' Whom do you love? 'My mother.' Do you love any body else? 'Yes;

my father.' Do you love your teacher? 'Yes.' You say you love your mother, but why do you love her? 'Because she takes care of me. Because she is kind.' Very well; and is it right to love our parents who are kind to us? 'Yes.' But if you should not love your mother who has been so kind to you, should you be bad children? 'Yes.'

To one of the children I said — Have you any sisters? 'Yes.' How many? 'Three.' Any brothers? 'Yes.' How many? 'One.' How many are three and one? 'Four.' If then you have three sisters and one brother, how many brothers and sisters have you? 'Four.' Then your mother takes care of your brother, and sisters, and yourself; how many does she take care of in all? 'Five.' And is your mother kind in taking care of *you?* 'Yes.' But is she not much kinder in taking care of your brother and sisters, too? 'Yes.' Did you not say you ought to love her because she takes the kind care of you? 'Yes.' Well, ought you not to love her more for taking care of five of you, than for taking care of *you* only? 'Yes.'

Do you know who takes care of your mother? (The child hesitated.) Perhaps you do not understand me? Who made your mother, and keeps her alive? 'God.' Does he take care of your mother while she takes care of you, when she is awake, and when she is asleep, and at all times? 'Yes.' Is he then kind to her? 'Yes.' Ought she to love him? 'Yes.' Whom else does God take care of? 'My father, and brother, and sisters.' And ought your mother to love him *more* for taking care of you, and your father, and your brother and sisters? 'Yes.' But does God take care of you? 'He does.' And ought you to love God? 'Yes.' And ought you to love him more because he takes care of all, your brother and sisters, and your father and mother? 'Yes.' Should you be a good child if you did not love him? 'No.'

Does God take care of any body else except your father and mother, and brother and sisters? 'Oh, Yes.' Who? 'Every body. All the children and teachers in this room.' Can he take the kind care of so many? 'Yes.' You said you ought to love your mother a great deal for taking care of you, and your brother and sisters. Now ought you to love God a great deal for taking care of so many people? 'Yes.' Does God take care of as many as your mother does? 'Oh,' a great many more.' How many; twenty? 'Yes, more.'

A hundred? 'Yes, more.' As many as could stand up in this room? 'Yes.' As many as could stand up in all the rooms in this city? 'Yes.' Can he see so many people? 'Yes.' Can they see him? 'No.' Why not? 'Because he is a spirit.' Ought you to love him a great deal for taking care of so many people when you cannot see him? 'Yes.'

Did this great being always take care of you? 'Yes.' How old are you? 'Four years.' How long has he taken care of you, then? 'Four years.' How old was you a year ago? 'Three years.' Are you a year older now than you was then? 'Yes.' Has God taken care of you a year longer than he had then? 'Yes.' Ought you to love him more then? 'Yes.' But do you? (No answer.)

Does your mother know that you love her? 'Yes.' How does she know it? (No reply.) If you love her, you will try to please her. Now if you displease her, will she think you love her? 'No.' If you try to please her, will she think you love her? 'Yes.' Will your mother be pleased if you do not mind her? 'No.' But if you mind her, what then? 'That will please her.'

Does God know whether you love him? 'Yes.' Will he be pleased when you love him? 'Yes.' If you mind him, will he be pleased? 'Yes.' You have told me already that you cannot see God; can you hear him speak to you? 'No.' How can you know what he says, then? How can you mind him? (No reply.) This book, the Bible, my children, is to tell you what God says. You come to Sunday School to learn what God says, that you may obey him. But if you know what he says to you in the Bible, and do not mind him, will he be pleased? 'No.' Shall you be bad children? 'Yes.' And what will God do with you if you do not love him, nor mind him, but are bad children?

2. Arithmetic.

The practice of requiring children to commit to memory rules and definitions in Arithmetic in the first place, and of giving examples designed to illustrate those rules afterwards, appears to be going rapidly into disuse. In many instances we already go farther, and instead of commencing with examples or lessons in abstract written numbers, we begin by referring the pupil to sensible objects, and teaching him to compute those objects. Several school books have recently been constructed

on this plan, and some of them are truly excellent. But they fail, as written books of every description must, of supplying a place which can only be filled by the living instructer. They suppose the pupil capable of passing to the study of mental arithmetic and abstract numbers much earlier than is, in my view, possible, without overtasking his mind, and thus ultimately retarding his progress. The representations of objects, such as we find in some recent works in this department, are undoubtedly the *best substitutes* for the objects themselves; but why should we use substitutes in the first lessons? Months, and in most cases *years*, should pass, in the arithmetic of sensible objects with which the pupil is acquainted, and with which every child is so abundantly furnished. These should be his books chiefly. The representations of some of those objects which interest him most, if faithfully executed, may be occasionally adverted to at an early period, but it should be seldom. The same is true of such exercises as are *purely* mental. But the practice of reckoning columns of written numbers, or of committing to memory tables, rules, or definitions, let them be expressed in language ever so simple, or the still more distracting exercises of carrying and borrowing, ought not to be required of a child for many years. The rage for *going through* a science, or rather a *book*, when it has once been commenced, is destructive to children. They should proceed no farther and no faster than they clearly understand, if they never go *through* a book in their lives.

If such works as Emerson's North American Arithmetic, were the means of leading instructers into the practice of teaching by sensible objects, they could not be too extensively circulated and used. But it is to be regretted that they too often become instruments, in the hands of unthinking teachers or parents, of facilitating a mechanical mode of instruction already sufficiently ruinous.

When a child is old enough to learn to count objects around him, he is old enough to study Arithmetic; and this study and learning to count should go on together. It is not necessary to announce to the pupil of one or two years of age that he is about to study *Arithmetic*; for this abstract term can be of no possible service to him. The following is an example of the course which I should pursue with a child who is entirely ignorant of the terms, *one*, *two*, *&c.*, and only knows the names of some of the objects around him. Let not my readers say that

the process is unnecessarily slow and minute, until they have satisfied themselves, by repeated experiment, that the pupil can proceed faster without sustaining present or future injury.

'What have I in this hand'? 'An apple.' 'And what in this?' 'An apple.' (Perhaps the child will merely say *apple*, without the article.) 'You are right. You may now call this *one* apple. Repeat it after me. *One apple.*' '*One apple.*' 'What is this?' 'One apple.' 'Very well. What is this in the other hand? Is this one apple?' 'Yes.' 'We will now put them together. Shall we now call them both together one apple?' The child does not know. 'No, one apple and one apple, when placed together, are *two apples.*' He should repeat the phrase two apples several times after the instructer. 'We will now separate them, and you may take one of them. Have you two apples, or one apple?' 'One apple.' 'Have I one apple?' 'Yes.' 'Let us now lay them both on the table, close together. What do you call them, now.' 'Two apples.' The instructer will now take up one of them, saying at the same time, *one apple*, and the child repeats it after him; then he immediately takes the other into the same hand, saying at the same time, *two apples.* The instructer may also do it entirely by himself, and require the pupil to imitate him.

This will be early enough to introduce the terms, one and two, without the word apple. The instructer may begin by counting in that manner himself; let him then ask, which is one, and which is two; and as soon as possible encourage the child to ask him the same questions.

In order that there may be no mistake, there should now be two parcels; one in one place, and two in another. Great care however must be taken not to put them together at present; for the number *three* would only perplex him, and it would be premature to give him the term.

These exercises, varied as much as possible for the sake of interest, should be introduced occasionally for several days. The objects should be changed often. Flowers, insects, beasts, and birds, with which he is acquainted; fruits of various kinds, chairs, windows, knives, tops, houses; in fact almost every object around him may be made the subject of instruction.

After several days the lesson may be extended. 'How many sugar toys have I in my hand? Is it one or two?' 'One.' 'How many now?' 'Two.' 'Is two more than one?' The child may not be able to answer. If not, the term *more* must

be explained. In general, however, it will be already understood. Taking another toy from his pocket, the instructer says, 'How many sugar toys have I now?' He does not know. 'Is there more than one?' 'Yes.' 'Is there more than two?' 'Yes.' 'Right. One sugar toy, and one sugar toy, make two sugar toys; but one sugar toy, and one sugar toy, and one sugar toy, make more than two. Should you like to know what to call them.?' 'Yes.' 'Well, then, one sugar toy, and one sugar toy, and one sugar toy, make three sugar toys. Now we will lay them together on the table and count them. You may touch them, as I do, when we count. One;—two;—Can you think what is next?' 'No.' 'Three. Repeat it after me—*Three*.' 'Three.' 'Now can you remember it?' 'Yes.' 'Let us count again. "One; two; three." Yes, you have remembered it. Now which should you like best to have—one sugar toy, or two sugar toys?' 'Two.' 'And should you like to have more than two?' 'Oh, yes.' How many should you like to have?' 'Three.' 'If I give you all of these, how many sugar toys shall I give you?' 'Three.' 'And how many should you then have?' 'Three.' 'If you should eat them all, how many should you eat?' 'Three.' 'If you should lose them all, how many should you lose?' 'I would not lose them.' 'But if you should happen to lose them, would you lose one, or two, or three?' 'Three.' 'And if you lose one, how many would you have left?' The child does not know. 'Here they are; I will give them to you. Now look at them. How many are there? Count them.' 'One, two, three.' 'I will put that small one aside. Now if it was lost, how many should you have left? Count them again.' 'One, two.' 'Would there be two left?' 'Yes.' 'Now you have three again. If you should give Jane one, how many would there be left?' 'I do not know.' 'Will you give her one?' 'Yes.' Now how many have you?' 'Two.' 'How many has Jane?' 'One.' 'If you should give William one, how many would there be left?' 'One.' 'And if you have one, and Jane one, and William one, how many have you all?' 'Three.' 'Three *what?*' 'Three sugar toys.'

Care should be taken never to fatigue a child by these exercises. With a little ingenuity, his attention may be sustained frequently ten or twelve minutes at a time without injury; seldom, however, much longer. A TEACHER.

Art. IX. — From a Teacher's Note Book.*

Composition.

Prejudice against the name. Example. Voluntary Composition. Notes and Letters. Journals. Various Exercises. Criticism of Composition. The Teacher's Pen.

The first thing to be done, is, to banish the *word* composition from the school-room. All children have so strong an abhorrence of everything called by this name, that it is best not to encounter it. We can have *the thing* without difficulty, but the name we must abandon.

I once had a class of little girls, from 7 to 10 years of age. They had just learned to write, and one day I proposed to them to write an account of a fire.

'We do not know how?'

'Oh, write what you observe when there is a cry of fire. I will read the papers when they are ready, to the whole class, and then tell you what words are spelt wrong; where there is bad punctuation, or careless writing. If all the class should write, would you not like to hear the accounts?'

'Yes, Sir.'

'Have you ever tried to write anything before?'

'No, Sir.'

'Well then I will tell you what to say, as it is the first time. Listen attentively, and try to remember it. If any of you please, however, you may write anything else, which you have yourselves seen. In fact I think it would be better for you to do this, for then there will be more variety and interest than if all write the same thing.

The children were quite interested in the plan, and prepared to listen attentively, when I proceeded as follows.

'When there is a fire, some man discovers it, and cries fire. Then some person goes to the church and rings the bell. The people in the street run, and cry fire very loud. Some are frightened; some run for the engine, and some bring buckets of water.

'If they think the house will burn down, the men climb up by ladders to the windows, and go in and throw out the furniture. Some of it is broken; many articles are frequently stolen.

* *To the Reader.* — The title of this article is a sufficient apology for its miscellaneous and discursive character.

After some time the flames burst out at the roof, and soon the whole building is on fire. They pour on water as fast as they can, but it only damps the flame a little; it does not extinguish it.'

In the same simple manner I proceeded as far as I thought necessary. The children listened with much interest, and thought it would be very easy to write an account of a fire. They succeeded well. Some of their most obvious faults were pointed out, and the exercise repeated several times. The class took great interest in it, and gradually deviated very much from the outline, which I gave them.

Unluckily, in the course of a few weeks, I dropped a remark in school, implying that I was thinking of having more of my pupils write composition. The next day one of the members of this class, which was going forward so successfully, came to me to say, that her mother had told her, *she might be excused from writing composition, because she thought she was not old enough to do it.* I need not say that I did not stop to contend about the name.

Voluntary Composition. — There are a great many ways in which pupils may be induced by a little encouragement from a teacher to exercise themselves *voluntarily* in the art of expressing their thoughts in writing. One is by writing notes to each other, which may be allowed in recesses, and at home.

If the teacher should sometimes make remarks in regard to the style and manner in which letters should be written, and perhaps occasionally write a note himself to one of his pupils as a model, he will find that the practice will be attended with very favorable effects. I knew a school where a number of the scholars of about twelve years of age, were so much interested in this plan that at one time they had a certain deposite for their letters, which they called the Post Office, and this was each morning, for sometime, filled, to the number of twenty or thirty, with letters and billets they had written at home on the evening previous. This strong interest did not last a great while, though the practice of writing notes always existed to a great extent, and exerted a powerful influence.

Another method by which the pupils may, *of their own accord*, make progress in the art of composition, is by keeping *journals*. This plan will be readily adopted, if the teacher encourages it, and will do much towards making his pupils good writers. The practice of keeping a journal has a very excel-

lent influence upon the intellectual and moral habits of young persons, and ought to be far more frequently and decidedly encouraged than it is.

Various Exercises. — The following are some of the kinds of composition, which may be adopted to give variety to the exercises in this branch. Writing Abstracts from Memory; Taking Notes of Lectures; Abridgments; Dialogues, real and imaginary; Stories for Children; Narratives of Personal Adventures; Discussions of Questions. The particular subjects should always be such as are interesting to the pupils.

Criticism of Compositions. — In criticising compositions, great care is necessary to avoid mentioning too many faults at a time. The most obvious and striking, should at first be pointed out; such as those which relate to the handwriting and the arrangement of the sentences; the spelling, the punctuation, and capitals; the preservation of margins, and the leaving of proper spaces at the paragraphs. When these faults are thoroughly corrected, some of the more obvious rhetorical faults may be noticed, such as repetitions of words, awkward sentences and inelegant phrases. From these the teacher may proceed to the characteristics of style. Great effort is necessary to avoid perplexing the pupil with a multiplicity of criticisms, and discouraging him with an array of many difficulties. At most but two or three kinds of faults should be enumerated in each composition.*

The Teacher's Pen. — A teacher may exert great influence over his pupils by his own pen. It is a good practice in every school to have in addition to the regular compositions of the classes, a day assigned for the reading of volunteer articles relating to common practical subjects; the daily occurrences; the politics as it were of the school, or anything which from time to time interests the scholars. These by a little encouragement from the teacher, particularly by a little private influence with individuals, can easily be obtained, and if a proper turn and character is given to the exercise, will exert a great

* We cannot but regard these directions as very important. We would suggest, as a modification, the plan recommended and practised by a son of Fellenberg at Hofwyl. — He said his uniform practice, in the first efforts at composition, or in the exercises in a new language, was, to make only those things which were *correct* or *deserving commendation;* and not overwhelm the scholar with mortification and discontent by erasing or altering the greater part of what costs him such painful efforts, but fix his attention on what was right, and might aid his subsequent efforts. — *Ed.*

influence upon the minds of the scholars. Now among these, the teacher may occasionally throw his own, and read it with the rest. He ought to inform his pupils at the outset that he shall do this, but as from time to time he reads the articles presented, as all are anonymous, or under fictitious signatures, his own will not be known except from internal evidence.

The kinds of writing suitable for such an occasion will of course be very various. Sometimes it may be a brief, sententious essay; sometimes a story illustrating some principle he wishes to impress; it may be a description of a character, fictitious as to name, but embodying real qualities good or bad, which he wishes to present to the consideration of his scholars; or it may be an account of some transaction which has taken place in school, with such comments as shall place it in a clear light.

ERODORE.

ART. X. — MUSIC, AS A BRANCH OF COMMON EDUCATION.

MANY, who are ready to admit the pleasure and the profit to be derived from vocal music, suppose that they can never be extended to the mass of the community. We are met on the threshold with the objection, that this branch of education must be reserved for those who have what is termed a 'natural ear' and a 'natural voice,' and that only a few persons can distinguish musical sounds, and imitate them accurately.

If the grounds of this opinion are demanded, we are presented with a greater or less number of individuals in society, who tell us they cannot distinguish one sound or one tune from another — that they know not whether notes are high or low; accordant or discordant; and that they cannot imitate any of them.

The first difficulty sometimes arises from not understanding the terms employed. Sounds, like colors, cannot be described in words. They must be taught by examples, patiently repeated and carefully attended to, until the ear is familiar with them; and gradually extended, as its powers of discrimination are increased. I have known cases in which persons who said they

could not distinguish one note from another, have found no difficulty in doing it, as soon as a few notes had been sounded before them, and the use of the appropriate terms had been illustrated.

But, in addition to this, the examples taken are not fair ones. They are of persons whose ear and vocal organs have been formed to certain habits so long, that they cannot be supposed to be so susceptible or flexible as they once were. Read a portion of French or German to the same individuals, and see if they can distinguish the similar words and sounds at once. Call upon them to pronounce the nasal and guttural sounds of these languages; or require a foreigner to pronounce our own language, and it requires no second sight to determine that they would not succeed better than in music. Is this an evidence that they have not a natural ear or a natural voice for German, or French, or English? Surely not. Why then apply this reasoning to music? Indeed, the argument would be more applicable to language, so far as experience extends. Who ever heard of an individual who spent whole days, for several years together, in singing, who did not find an ear for it? But we have few examples of men who pronounce a foreign language without obvious errors, even after years of study or of residence in a country where they speak it incessantly. Until we are presented with individuals who were taught music as they were taught language, from their childhood, and who still cannot distinguish or imitate musical sounds, there is no good reason for admitting that any considerable number of persons are naturally destitute of an ear for music.

I do not mean to deny that there are defects of hearing of every degree, from absolute deafness, to mere dulness of hearing, which renders it difficult to perceive nice distinctions, and so on to a perfect state of the organ; nor that some individuals may have a natural rigidness or other defect of the muscles and cartilages of the mouth and throat, as others have in their limbs. Nor have I any doubt that great natural differences exist as to the degree of accuracy in imitating musical sounds, as they do in the distinctness of articulation and the correctness of reading, in those whose organs are not obviously defective. But I am satisfied from the testimony of those who have had extensive means of observation and experiment, both in this country and in Europe, as teachers of music, as well as by an obvious course of reasoning, that these cases are almost as few in num-

ber as those of the lame, and the deaf and dumb. Vehrli, the remarkable teacher of the agricultural school in the institution of Fellenberg, assured me that among several hundred poor neglected children confided to his care, he had found only two whom he could not teach to sing.

Pfeiffer, the author of the Pestalozzian system of instruction in music, informed me, that he had found not more than one or two in ten, who could not be taught to sing. The same opinion was expressed by most of the practical teachers I met with in Europe. The few I found of another opinion, were men whose exquisite sensibility of ear and of nerves, rendered the discord of a learner's notes a species of torture, and who therefore could not exercise the patience necessary to go through an elementary course, except with very apt scholars. The same difficulty would probably have arisen, if they had attempted to teach their own language to a foreigner. Several of the most experienced teachers of music in our own country have assured me that the result of their experience was the same. One who has taught four thousand pupils, and enjoys much reputation as an instructer, assured me, that although he found the same variety in these organs as in others, he never found an individual who could not be taught to sign.

But we shall find substantial reasons for believing this true, arising from the nature of vocal music. It consists of a succession of vocal sounds, some of which are long and others short, some slow and others quick, some high and others low. Now what else is speech? Speech also has high and low sounds, slow and quick, and long and short; and these variations have been reduced to a system of surprising accuracy. Chapman, in his Rhythmical Grammar, and Rush and Barber, in their works, have pointed out very clearly the musical intervals, which are necessary in order to speak and read correctly and intelligibly. They have shown that in order to ask a question, the voice usually rises a third, or three tones; that when the question is more earnest, or asked with surprise, the tone is a fifth higher than usual; and that when the earnestness is still greater, the voice rises eight tones; and that these intervals are to a considerable extent uniform. The answer falls in the same manner. The rapidity and force with which we speak, obviously vary with the state of our feelings. In short, a very little examination will show us that our speaking is in effect a kind of singing. This, indeed, is the great obstacle which a foreigner

has to encounter in learning our language — and the want of it is that which we term a foreign accent. It is evident, then, that every man who understands the difference between the mode of pronouncing a question and an answer, and between a common question and an earnest one, can distinguish a high note from a low, and can even tell the difference between a third and a fifth. He must, therefore, so far, have a musical ear.

The ordinary tones of voice are in the major key. The tones of distress, or the whine of a beggar, are in the minor key. If he can *distinguish* these, he proves that he has, to this extent at least, a musical ear. If he can *imitate* all these various sounds, I know not how we can deny him a musical voice. In short, he who can discriminate the variations of speech, can distinguish musical sounds. He who has learned to *speak correctly*, may learn to *sing*.

We cannot omit noticing a topic which properly belongs to another lecture, — that practice in music will be the best preparation and aid for the formation of good readers and good speakers, and that he who does not understand something of musical tones, and has not habituated his organs to the sudden and precise variations which they require, cannot understand perfectly the modern rules of elocution, nor enjoy the full benefit of the excellent instructions we now have in this art.

In regard to all the efforts yet made among us, to ascertain how large a portion of the community can be taught vocal music, the experiments have been desultory in their character, short in their duration, and generally conducted by unskilful hands. Nothing then can be inferred from them against a new experiment, at a period when the habits of the body and mind are not fixed. But the complete answer to all doubts on this point is furnished by the fact, that wherever the experiment has been made at the proper age, and in the proper manner, it has been successful.

I have already stated that it forms a part of common school education throughout Germany and Switzerland. In the improved schools, it is deemed no more difficult, and no more remarkable to read and write music, than language. I have also quoted the opinion of Luther, as to its importance. Allow me to add the opinion of distinguished men of the same countries, both in regard to the importance, and the practicability of teaching it to all.

Niemeyer, one of the most celebrated writers on education in Prussia, observes;—'The organs of speech are improved by singing; the ear is formed and rendered more acute, and the well known power of music, even upon savages, proves that we should least of all neglect a branch of instruction which exerts so important an influence in softening the passions, in elevating the social and finer feelings, in aiding the moral cultivation, and cherishing the spirit of devotion.'

Schwartz, one of the surviving fathers of education in Germany, remarks;—'In the cultivation of the ear, we have a means of cultivating the harmony of the soul and the purity of the heart, and of promoting heavenly love and spiritual life, which will probably not be fully appreciated for a long time to come.'

Denzel, a veteran of this cause, who has been employed in organizing the school system of two of the German States, observes;—'The formation of the voice is too important, and the influence of vocal music on the mind and heart too great, to permit us to dispense with it in common schools. It is no longer doubted that it ought to constitute a branch of study, in every institution for elementary education.'

Art. XI. — American Lyceum.

Prepared for the Annals of Education.

At the request of the New York State Lyceum, delegates and other friends of education, assembled in the city of New York, on the 4th of May last, to organise a National Lyceum. By the politeness of the corporation of the city, the Convention assembled in the City Hall, when they requested Rev. Dr Proudfit to take the chair, and appointed John Neal, of Portland, and A. J. Yates, of Chittenango, secretaries.

Soon after the Convention was organised, a committee of arrangements, consisting of Messrs Griscom, Holbrook, Yates, Olmsted, and Sargent, were appointed, who, after a short time, reported a constitution for the American Lyceum, and several subjects for discussion during their session.

The fundamental principle in the constitution, and the one

which called forth much animated discussion and some difference of opinion, is its representative feature. The object of this principle in the constitution, is to secure a representation from every section of the Union, and with it a collection of *facts* relating to the condition and wants of schools, and to provide and execute measures, by which their wants may be supplied, and a uniform and improved system of education introduced and extended throughout the country.

Delegates may be sent from a General Lyceum in any state or territory, or from the District of Columbia, equal in number to one half of the members to Congress from said state, territory, or district; and any state may have the right of sending three.

For the facts which are expected, as well as for all the operations of the system, designed for direct instruction or utility, the principal dependance is on town Lyceums, which, it is hoped, will soon be universally established throughout the country. All necessary facts relating to education can be collected with great ease by all town Lyceums, and in a great measure from teachers, who are in many cases, members, ex officio, of these societies. From the town Lyceums, the facts are sent to county societies, where they are embodied, and again reported to state Lyceums, and thence to the National Society.

When the defects, wants, improvements, facilities, &c. of our schools, and of all literary institutions, are placed before an enlightened congress of teachers and other friends of education and of their country, they will be prepared to propose and recommend measures, for general adoption, still leaving them to be received or rejected by all to whom they relate.

Although the Lyceum, in all its departments, is a *voluntary* association, or an advisory body, and resorts to no law, nor to any other power but *evidence*, and the power of *motives*;—yet by enlightening and elevating *public sentiment*, before which legislatures, kings, and despots must bow, it may exert *power*, and the only power worthy to be exerted or acknowledged by intellectual and moral beings.

There is every reason to believe that, at the next meeting of the society, every State in the Union will be represented, and a mass of facts collected, which they can apply to the future operations and success of the cause of education throughout the country. The expectation that such a representation will

be made, and such facts collected, is founded on the urgent calls made by the friends of education in every part of the country for *co-operation*, and the great and manifest facilities the society will afford for concentrating and combining efforts, and for extending a uniform system of measures into all departments of popular education.

After the organisation of the Lyceum, the 'two Great volumes, the book of Nature and the book of Revelation,' were fully discussed, and unanimously recommended, as important and fundamental branches in every system of education, especially in common schools. And the opinion that different branches of Natural History, and the Bible, both contain appropriate and important lessons of knowledge, for all classes and ages, must, it is believed, be almost universally adopted by those who will give to the subject one moment's reflection.

After the full and interesting discussions on the subjects of Natural History and the Bible, as essential instruments in early and general education, the qualification of teachers, the nature, operations, results, and prospects of Lyceums, and the procuring of Town and County Maps, occupied the attention of the meeting.

On the qualifications of teachers, seminaries for that purpose were recommended; and as a preparatory step to these institutions, the weekly meetings of teachers in towns, and the semi-annual conventions of teachers in counties, under the direction and aid of town and county Lyceums, were thought to be highly important.

The advantage of these teachers' meetings, both in towns and counties, is, that they can go into operation *immediately*, so that even the summer schools, already commenced, can receive the benefit of them; — that they can act in behalf of *all* the teachers in the country, and can *continue* their operations and their benefits to every teacher during the whole of his engagement, whether it be for three months or thirty years.

Another object recommended to the attention of Lyceums, is Town and County Maps, which shall delineate, fully and minutely, the features and resources of our country. These maps are intended to embrace the Geography and Geology, and something of the Agriculture and Statistics, of the various regions which they delineate.

Viewing this subject in connexion with the wants of schools, — with the convenience of every family and individual, — its

importance in many cases in courts of justice, and in its bearing upon the political economy and the future growth of our country, it is certainly one of the most important that can be proposed. And when it is known that numerous Lyceums have already, under great disadvantages, procured maps of their towns, neat and elegant, as well as useful in their character, and at a most trifling expense, it cannot be doubted that, under a general co-operation of Town and County Lyceums throughout the country, a complete set of these useful instruments of knowledge may be procured, of a still more perfect character, and at a much cheaper rate, than can possibly be furnished by the insulated and immature efforts of any one society.

To forward this very important object of useful knowledge and of political economy, a committee was appointed to prepare models for town and county maps, and to give such instructions in making the surveys and delineations, as to enable any accurate surveyer to perform them.

As there is much power in united and simultaneous efforts, and as the subject of town maps is one in which every person of common intelligence must have some interest, it is hoped that the object and the measures proposed to accomplish it, will have the approbation and co-operation of every Lyceum and every individual in our Republic, who has any wish for self-improvement, or the general diffusion of useful knowledge.*

Whether this or any other object or advantage proposed or or contemplated by the National Society, is to be realised by the citizens of any town or community, it is highly important, if not indispensable, that they should organise a branch Lyceum; for in order to participate in the benefits of the Lyceum system, they must engage in its exercises.

The following is the journal of the proceedings of the Convention.

Journal of the proceedings of the Convention held in the city of New-York for the purpose of forming a National Lyceum, pursuant to a recommendation of the State Lyceum of the State of New-York, May 4, 1831.

The Convention having met in the District Court room of the City Hall, was organized by the election of the following officers, namely:

* This committee consists of Professors Dewy, Olmsted, and Hitchcock, W. C. Woodbridge, and Mr Stevens, who is now taking a survey for a map of Massachusetts.

PRESIDENT.

ALEXANDER PROUDFIT, D. D. *of Salem, N. Y.*

SECRETARIES.

JOHN NEAL, *of Portland, Me.*—A. J. YATES, *Chittenango, N. Y.*

The following gentlemen then appeared, produced their credentials, and were admitted as members of the Convention.

Delegates from the New York State Lyceum.

Prof. A. J. Yates, Prof. John Griscom, Prof. A. Eaton, Timothy Clowes.

Delegates from the State Lyceum of Maine.

John Neal, Grenville Mellen, John D. Kinsman.

Delegates from Massachusetts State Lyceum.

Josiah Holbrook, Joseph Allen, Frederick Emerson, Prof. Chester Dewey.

Delegates from Yale College.

Prof. D. Olmsted, and Mr Barnard.

Delegates from Washington Co. N. Y.

Dr. Alex. Proudfit, Barnard Blair, J. W. Proudfit.

H. G. Spafford, *Delegate from the Lansingburgh Lyceum.*

Delegates from the Village of Brooklyn, N. Y.

Theodore Eames, J. L. Van Doren, Adrian Hayman, Gabriel Freeman, Nathan Sargent.

Henry Duffield, *Delegate from Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.*

Letters excusing their absence were then read from D. Elliott, President of Washington College, Pa. The Hon. Edward Everett, Charlestown, Mass. and S. R. Hall, Andover, Mass.

On motion, a number of gentlemen, were admitted as members of the Convention.

On motion, a committee was appointed to report the form of Constitution of a National Lyceum, which committee having retired for a short time, came in and reported a Constitution, which being fully discussed and amended, was adopted in the following form, namely:

Constitution of the American Lyceum.

ARTICLE I. The Society shall be called the American Lyceum.

ART. II. The objects of the Lyceum shall be the advancement of Education, especially in common Schools, and the general diffusion of knowledge.

ART. III. The members of the American Lyceum shall consist as follows:—1st. Of Delegates from State, Territory, and District Lyceums, which are or may be formed; the number of which delegates shall not exceed half the number of members from said State, Territory, or District in the National Congress, and where an uneven number of Congressional Representatives is allowed, the fraction shall be construed in favor of such State, Territory, or District; but no State, Territory, or District shall be restricted to less than three members.

2d. Of persons appointed by the Executive Committee of the National Lyceum, from those States, Territories, or Districts, where no general Lyceum exists, or where no notice of delegations from those Lyceums shall have been received by the Executive Committee, at least three months previous to the time of holding the annual meeting of the American Lyceum, under the same limitation of members as in the case of Delegates from Lyceums.

3d. Of persons invited by said Executive Committee, to attend said annual meeting from various parts of the United States, but who shall not be admitted to the privilege of voting for the election of officers, on any measures connected with the internal policy of the Lyceum.

ART. IV. The officers of the Lyceum shall be a President, five Vice-Presidents, a Recording Secretary, as many Corresponding Secretaries as the Lyceum, at any of its annual meetings, shall deem necessary, and a Treasurer, who, with five other persons, shall constitute an Executive Committee to transact any business for the benefit of the Lyceum, to be appointed by ballot at each annual meeting, and to hold their offices until others are appointed in their stead.

ART. V. The Lyceum shall hold an Annual Meeting in the city of New-York, on the Friday next succeeding the first Thursday in May.

ART. VI. Three persons shall form a quorum of the Executive Committee, which shall hold its meetings in the city of New-York, and shall be empowered to add others to its number.

ART. VII. This Constitution may be altered and amended by vote of two thirds of the Delegates present at any annual meeting.

Convention adjourned to meet to-morrow morning at 10 o'clock.

May 5. Convention met according to adjournment.

Mr Holbrook from the committee appointed for that purpose, nominated the following persons as officers of the American Lyceum.

President.—Hon. STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER, Albany, N. Y.

Vice-Presidents.—1st. Dr Alexander Proudfit, Albany, N. Y. 2d. Prof. John Griscom, Salem, N. Y. 3d. Roberts Vaux, Philadelphia. 4th. Edward Everett, Mass. 5. Thomas S. Grimke, S. Carolina.

Recording Secretary.—Nathan Sargent, New-York.

Corresponding Secretaries.—1st. Theodore Dwight, Jr. 2d. Samuel B. How, President of Dickinson College, Pa. 3d. Prof. A. J. Yates, Chittenango, N. Y. 4th. Josiah Holbrook, Boston, Mass. 5th. John Neal, Portland, Me. 6th. Oliver A. Shaw, Richmond, Va. 7th. Rev. Benjamin O. Peers, Lexington, Ken.

Additional Committee.—1st. Prof. D. Olmsted, Yale College. 2d. ——— Seton, New-York. 3d. William Forrest, New-York. 4th. David Russell, Salem, N. Y.

Treasurer.—Jonathan D. Steele, New-York.

Who were severally elected.

On motion, the Convention now resolved itself into a Lyceum, whereupon Dr Alexander Proudfit, 1st Vice-President, in the absence of the President, took the Chair.

On motion, Resolved that the thanks of the Lyceum be tendered to the President and Secretaries of the Convention for their services.

The following subjects were then presented to the Lyceum for discussion, namely.

1. What are the greatest desiderata in relation to the improvement of common Schools?

2. What are the most eligible and practical means of advancing and perfecting the science of instruction?

3. To what extent is the monitorial system advisable and practicable in common Schools?

4. What is the most eligible plan of promoting education, by legislative enactments?

5. Ought manual labor Schools to be encouraged, and upon what general plan?

6. Should every boy who can devote his whole time to study until the age of 16, be put to the study of Latin and Greek, and if not, to what class should these languages be restricted?

7. To what extent may lectures be useful in common Schools?

8. To what extent can the natural sciences be advantageously introduced into common Schools?

9. The object and usefulness of town and district Lyceums?

10. What should be the object of County and State Lyceums, and how should they be formed.

On motion of Dr Proudfit—

Resolved, That in the judgment of this Lyceum, a portion of the Scriptures ought to be daily read in each common School, and this exercise is hereby respectfully recommended.

Lyceum adjourned till to-morrow 11 o'clock, A. M.

May 6. Lyceum met according to adjournment. The Lyceum then took up for discussion the question, 'To what extent can the Natural Sciences be advantageously introduced into common Schools?'

On motion, Lyceum adjourned till to-morrow at 11 o'clock.

May 7. Lyceum met according to adjournment. On motion,

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to draft a code of By-Laws, for the government of this Lyceum.

On motion—*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this Lyceum the weekly meetings of teachers in towns, and the semi-annual Conventions of teachers in counties, under the direction and aid of town and county Lyceums, are eminently calculated to improve the qualifications of teachers, and advance the interests of Schools.

The Rev. Dr Proudfit having obtained leave of absence, Professor John Griscom, 2d Vice-President, took the chair; whereupon, it was resolved that the thanks of this Lyceum be tendered to Dr Proudfit for the able and dignified manner in which he has presided over the deliberations of this Society.

On motion—*Resolved*, That this Lyceum consider the establishment of Seminaries for the education of teachers, a most important part of every system of public instruction.

On motion—*Resolved*, That the Executive Committee be requested to invite such gentlemen from different parts of the United States as they shall deem expedient, to present at the next annual meeting of this Lyceum, addresses, or remarks on such topics as they may assign them, connected with the diffusion of useful knowledge and public education.

The Lyceum then took up for discussion the question, 'What are the greatest desiderata for the improvement of common Schools?'

On motion, adjourned till to-morrow 11 o'clock.

May 8. Lyceum met according to adjournment. The Vice-President read a letter, addressed through him to the Lyceum, from Wm. C. Woodbridge, offering a set of the Annals of Education, and also offering that work as a channel of publication for the notices and proceedings of the Lyceum, so far as they may deem it appropriate to this subject. When on motion,

Resolved, That "THE AMERICAN ANNALS OF EDUCATION," published in Boston, and "THE MAGAZINE OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE," published in the city of New-York, be adopted as the organs of publication for the proceedings of this Lyceum.

On Motion of Mr Emerson,

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be directed to adopt such measures as they shall deem expedient to encourage the institution of Lyceums in the several States of the Union, where Lyceums do not already exist.

On motion of Mr Neal,

Resolved, That we regard the School Teachers of our country (who are now estimated at 50,000) as a body on whom the future character and stability of our institutions chiefly depend; that they are therefore entitled to our highest consideration, and that whatever may be their faults or deficiencies, the remedy for both is in the hands of society at large.

On motion of Mr Holbrook,

Resolved, That the American Lyceum recommend to town and county Lyceums, which are or may be formed, to co-operate in procuring town and county maps, embracing Geography, Geology, and as much of Agriculture and Statistics as may be found practicable.

On motion, the following gentlemen were appointed a committee to prepare a model of town and county maps of the kind mentioned in the preceeding resolution; namely, Prof. Dewey, Prof. Olmsted, Prof. Hitchcock, Wm. C. Woodbridge, and Mr. James Stevens.

Mr Neal from the Committee appointed to draught a code of By-Laws, reported the following, namely—

BY-LAWS.

I. The Recording Secretary shall provide a suitable place for depositing books, specimens, and other property belonging to the Society; a place for the regular meetings; and, give early and public notice thereof.

II. Every Corresponding Secretary shall have a particular department assigned to him, and the following are hereby assigned to those appointed.

1st. Samuel B. How, President of Dickinson College, Carlisle, PENNSYLVANIA. On Colleges and their connexion with common Schools.

2d. Josiah Holbrook, Boston, MASSACHUSETTS. On Books, Apparatus, and Branches of Study.

3d. B. O. Peers, Lexington, KENTUCKY. On Legislative provisions for Schools.

4th. A. J. Yates, Chittenango, Madison Co. NEW-YORK. On the qualification of Teachers.

5th. Theodore Dwight, Jun. New-York City, NEW-YORK. On Lyceums.

6th. Oliver A. Shaw, Richmond, VIRGINIA. On the Natural Sciences.

7th. John Neal, Portland, MAINE. On methods of Instruction and School discipline.

III. The Corresponding Secretaries will make reports in their respective departments, and furnish the Recording Secretary with all documents relating thereto, and belonging to the Society.

IV. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee, or any three of their number, to invite persons from different parts of the United States, to address the Lyceum at the annual meeting, on such topics as they may prescribe to them.

V. It shall be the duty of every member of the Executive Committee to forward the general objects of the Lyceum, in that section of the country to which he belongs.

VI. The rules of debate observed in the House of Representatives of the United States, as recorded in Jefferson's Manual, shall be observed by this Society.

On motion of Mr Yates,

Resolved, That the thanks of this Lyceum be presented to the Mayor and Corporation of this city, for their kindness in supplying a room, and otherwise contributing to the convenience of the Lyceum during its session.

On motion—*Resolved*, That the proceedings of the Convention and of the Lyceum be published and circulated in different parts of the United States.

The business of the Lyceum having been closed, it was, on motion, adjourned.

Art. XII. — Biography.

For the Journal of Education.

I deem the judicious labours of the conscientious biographer, as among the most useful to a reading child. I mean that biography which presents the lives of *self made men*, and points out with clearness the several steps by which they arrived at eminent usefulness. We have been inundated with fictitious narratives and supposed situations. We want what is real, tangible, and human. We want to know the exact description of actual cares. We want to be certain, that such or such an individual was born in poverty, that he struggled hard with opposing circumstances, and was sometimes near desperation, but, that he persevered and finally triumphed. One palpable case, fully described, will do more to give energy and motive to a youth than ten thousand 'fancy's sketches.' We need those true to life. Let every color be mingled as it actually combined in the living man. I am very sorry that the author of 'Biography for Young Persons,' has paused in his labours. That series of books were calculated to do more for imparting true moral courage to gifted youth than all the works I can mention. The rising youth of this hemisphere need to be told, and told *often*, that usefulness of incalculable amount, character of eternal value, are within their reach. *They only need to be roused to the work.* Our children are well brought forward, and it is a deep stain on our far eulogized institutions, if we produce no such men as as Heyne, Sherman, Parr, and Franklin. These men rose against every obstacle to heights of usefulness and reputation, and their names will ever live in the records of their country. And shall the series cease? I firmly believe we have many profound scholars and able statesmen, and successful labourers in every field of science and usefulness, if I may so say, wrapt up in the little forms of our frolicksome school-boys; and shall we let them die without enabling them to perform the high duties for which they were sent into this world? I am persuaded, that well written biographies, of proper persons, will give to ardent minds *the very stimulus*, which shall put them in motion. I should like to see a full life of Newton accommodated to children, one of Linnæus, another of some distinguished engineer, one of Howard, and more than one of those *eminent* for their excellence and piety in every sphere of life. We need such models, to show us what *man has done*, that we may learn and feel what *man can do*.

Civis.

INTELLIGENCE.

DOMESTIC.

Oneida Institute.

We have been favored with the third report of this flourishing seminary, from which it appears that forty-two young men have earned, during the last year, a sum equal to the amount of their board, which, at a little more than one dollar a week, amounts to $2,000. While earning this sum, they have also been giving strength and vigor to their constitutions; a healthy tone to their mental faculties; and preparing themselves to endure hardships, to encounter difficulties,

and to accomplish the great purposes of life. All the other expenses of the institution, for tuition, room rent, fuel, light, and contingences, amount to $28 a year for each student. This plan of uniting manual labour with study, we regard as among the best improvements of the day. The experiment at Whitesborough has been a fair and successful one; and we rejoice to learn that the Trustees propose erecting buildings to accommodate *one hundred* students. Five hundred applicants, it is stated, have been refused admission, the last year, for want of room; a noble comment on the adaptation of the system to the wants of the community. — *Utica Sentinel.*

Historical Society of Indiana.

A society has been formed in Indiana with this title, having among other objects those of searching out and unfolding the history of the Indian tribes within that State; the ancient remains and natural curiosities in the State, its civil and political history, from the earliest settlements; the natural history, embracing geology, minerology, and botany, its soil, productions, climate, animals, birds, fishes, &c. The Corresponding Secretary resides at Salem, Washington county.

Connecticut Mirror.

Genessee Wesleyan Seminary.

This institution is established at Lima, Livingston county, New York, under the direction of the Genessee Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. It is designed to unite agriculture and the mechanic arts with a course of literary and scientific studies. The main edifice, to be built of stone, with a centre of three stories, 130 feet long by 40 wide, and two wings of 40 feet each, is under contract, with the prospect of being completed during the present year.

Female School in Germantown, Pa.

The Trustees of Germantown Academy have established a Female Department in their institution, with a separate location from the Male department. It is designed for females above the age of five years, a few of whom are to reside in the family of the two principals; and, together with a limited number of the others, 'compose a domestic circle, associating for the purposes of instruction and mutual influence.' The government is designed to be eminently *parental;* and a liberal allowance of time is to be devoted to those exercises and recreations which are necessary to secure *sound health.* Instruction is to be given in the various branches of an enlarged English course, including music and drawing; and also in the French language; aided by apparatus and visible illustrations. Books are to be used 'chiefly to illustrate and corroborate what the pupils shall attain by their own efforts.' It is under the care of Mr William Russell, late Editor of this Journal, and Mr A. B. Alcott.

Philadelphia Association of Teachers.

A Society with this title has recently been formed in Philadelphia for promoting the cause of primary education in general, with a more

special reference, however, to the State of Pennsylvania. A Board of nine Directors, appointed annually, is to determine the time of the meetings of the Association, to which Females engaged in the business of teaching, though not regular members, are to be invited. Individuals not actually engaged in teaching, can belong to the Association only by being elected honorary members.

Music in Primary Schools.

From the journal of Mr Roland, it appears that music is taught systematically in the infant school at Bethelsdorp, South Africa. Not only hymns and songs, but arithmetic, together with the principles of reading, geometry, and the mechanic arts, are *sung* by the children of four or five years of age, and the most perfect measure and harmony at the same time observed. The writer regards infant schools as one of the most useful and *philosophical* discoveries that have been made. 'Children,' he says, 'are thus brought up with gentleness; their moral and intellectual faculties are developed; they acquire the principles of social life, and without constraint. They go to school with joy, and at their own free will; even the youngest, forgetting the bosom of their mothers, cry to go, and join their little companions; and in going out of school, not contented with what they have done during their lessons, they cheer the village with their songs, and repeat everywhere what they have learned. Nothing could be more sweet and melodious than their voices.'

Connecticut Observer.

Statistics of Common Schools.

The number of public schools in Greenfield, Ms. is six, containing during the winter past about 222 scholars. The terms of continuance were severally 3, 3, 3 1-2, 4, 4, and 3 months, making a difference of one month, or a proportional difference of one fourth, between the lowest and the highest privileges of the several districts, so far as the term of continuance goes. 'Of the whole number of males, 8 study grammar, 65 arithmetic, 34 geography. Of the females, 22 study grammar, 44 arithmetic, 51 geography, and 4 natural philosophy.' From this statement it appears, that of the whole number of males, one fourteenth study grammar, more than one half, arithmetic; and nearly one third, geography; that of the females, one fifth study grammar, considerably more than one half, arithmetic, and nearly one half, geography. Of the whole number of both sexes, nearly one seventh study grammar, one half, arithmetic, and much more than one third, geography. *Edu. Reporter.*

New Publication.

Mr Carey of Philadelphia has just issued a pamphlet, entitled, 'Thoughts on the Advantages of Infant Schools, and on the delay of their establishment, at the public expense, in the city and liberties of Philadelphia.

Premium Essay.

The American Institute of Instruction has offered a premium of twenty dollars, or a medal of that value — at the option of the writer,

for the best Essay on the construction of school houses; in which attention shall be given to the location of the house, to its dimensions, arrangement, best modes of lighting, warming and ventilating it, with particular reference to the common schools, and to economy in space, material, and furniture.

Self Supporting School.

We learn from a correspondent that the Baptist State Convention of Georgia, determined at its last meeting to establish a Theological Insitution in some central part of the State on the working plan. Measures were taken to raise $1500, by the first of December next, for the purchase of land, and to make the necessary preparations.

FOREIGN.

Interlineary Versions of the Classics.

The method of classical instruction by means of interlineary versions devised by Locke, has been revived in England. At the shop of the bookseller to the London University, the following Greek and Latin books with interlineary versions are published, intended for the first course: Phædrus; Ovid's Metamorphoses, 1st book; Virgil's Eneid, 1st book, &c.; and in Greek, select Dialogues from Lucian; select Odes from Anacreon; Xenophon's Memorabilia, &c. The German language is said to be taught in the same way.

London Lit. Gaz.

Maps in Relief.

We saw nothing more interesting among the methods of illustration adopted in Germany, and Switzerland, than the models or maps in relief, exhibiting the face of a country with all its varieties of surface — intended to convey more distinct ideas on the subject of Geography. They have long been used to illustrate particular districts, especially in Switzerland, and were first prepared for school use for the blind. A very imperfect imitation of them has been attempted in New York by a carver in wood — but almost too rude to be of much value. We cannot better describe those of Germany, than in the following extracts from the London Quarterly Journal of Education. These reliefs differ from common globes and maps most essentially in the following particulars. Instead of representing the hills and valleys by etching, they exhibit real elevations and depressions, corresponding to those on the earth's surface. The mountains and valleys are thus made visible and palpable; the coast also is clearly raised above the level of the sea, and its peculiar character, whether of lofty rock, or level sand is accurately delineated. The high table-lands like those of Central Africa, are placed on a higher level than the flat lands near the coasts; and the rivers and lakes are seen confined within their channels and basins. Not only is the general direction of the hills clearly laid down, but also the varieties in their steepness, their deeliv-

ities, and the great isolated summits are delineated in their proper proportions. Appropriate colors, too, are used; the eternal snow of the highest mountain tops, and the ice of the polar regions, are represented white; the sandy deserts, yellow; the steppes brown, or a yellow brown; the stony, barren regions, grey and uneven; the forests green; and all the water is made blue. The material employed is paper, of a fine and light kind, not liable to be broken; the weight of one of the largest reliefs is very small, and they may be handled without any risk of damaging them. Names are written on these reliefs and the clearness even of the smaller characters is surprising.

It is obvious that to bring such a manufacture to perfection, requires skilful artists and much experience.

The Prussian Universities and Schools.

The sums assigned by the Prussian government for the maintenance of their six Universities in the year 1829, were as follows: —

Berlin,	independently of $1,459,760 paid for the support of scientific institutions	$58,386
Bonn		65,845
Breslau		46,708
Halle		45,643
Koningsberg		40,004
Griefswalde		36,940
		$293,526

Netherlands.

The six Universities of this kingdom received from the government during the year 1829–30, the sum of 19,200 dollars. Out of this, Lowen, (Louvain) had $5,800; Liege, $2,800; Leyden $3,200; Utrecht $2,800; Ghent $2,800; and Groningen $2,800.

French Journals in Russia.

The number of French journals published in Russia at present is eight, of which four are issued at Petersburg, one at Moscow, and three at Odessa. Some of these are issued weekly in the form of newspapers; others appear monthly, and are appropriated to scientific and practical objects. One of the Petersburg journals and two of those of Odessa are published both in French and Russian.

Revue Encyclopedique.

Greek Books Published at Malta.

The press at Malta, belonging to one of the London religious societies, is actively employed in printing cheap books in modern Greek. Most of them are on religious subjects, or closely connected topics. For example, there was published in 1830, entitled Νεκρὰ Λυρά, or the Youthful Lyre, a collection of Sacred Songs, in imitation of those of Watts, and Mrs Taylor. In the Society's list we find also an Epitome of English Grammar, and a Manual of Geography, intended for the use of Greek youth.

London Quarterly Journal of Education.

School for Blacks.

From a recent census of the town of Halifax, Nova Scotia, it appears that there are in that town, 293 children below the age of sixteen years belonging to poor people of color.

The colored population have held two meetings, at which the Lord Bishop of Nova Scotia presided, with a view to make provision for their instruction. The result has been a determination to establish and support a Sunday and daily school as soon as sufficient sums shall be subscribed for the purpose. After the colored people have done all in their power towards accomplishing the object, a subscription is to be circulated among the more wealthy white inhabitants to aid in the work, and to provide funds for the support of a permanent teacher. A flourishing institution for negro children, will, it is believed, be the speedy result of these movements. *Nova Scotia paper.*

NOTICES.

Elements of Chemistry, in the order of the Lectures given in Yale College; by Benjamin Silliman, Professor of Chemistry, Pharmacy, Mineralogy, and Geology. In 2 vols. pp. 518 and 696; with an Appendix. New Haven. Hezekiah Howe. 1831.

Although this work appears under the unassuming title of 'Elements,' yet from its extent and comprehensiveness, it might without arrogance be entitled a 'System of Chemistry.' The author has long been known to the public as one of our most eminent chemists; and is justly celebrated for the ability and zeal with which, for a period of nearly thirty years, he has discharged the duties of a public lecturer on chemistry and its kindred sciences. He thus possesses a most important preparation for the compilation of a text book, by adding to a thorough knowledge of his subject that skill in the art of teaching, which, while it seems with Professor Silliman an original quality, is always greatly increased by experience.

The opinion of a correspondent familiar with the subject, who has carefully examined the work, in addition to our own cursory observation, justifies us in saying that this is among the most valuable books published on this subject. The copiousness of its facts is truly astonishing; and while it cannot be supposed, by those who are familiar with the greatest works of the day, that one of this extent and minuteness is free from errors, we have no hesitation in recommending it to the student of chemistry, as containing a full and correct view of the present state of the science. Chemistry is necessarily encumbered with a vast number of particulars, from the consideration of which no skill in classification can ever relieve it. We find, however, that while they are faithfully recited in the work before us, and digested with as much skill as the nature of the case seems to admit, on the analytical plan, appropriate devices are used to guide the young learner in the principle of *selection;* so that he may discern the leading features, when he has not the leisure to enter into all the intricacies of the science. The beautiful cuts, furnished by Dr Hare, are a most valuable addition to the work.

We rejoice to find that in teaching the *laws* of the material world, Professor Silliman has been careful to remind his pupils of *that Being who*

gives and maintains these laws; and that, after explaining the series of *proximate causes*, he announces a proposition not less important as a part of true philosophy than any other in the system, that *that this series must terminate at last in the power of the Creator*, and that 'GOD IS THE FIRST CAUSE of everything.' Would that all our teachers and writers on Natural Science might adopt this course; and there would be less ground for the reproach which is cast upon it, that the Study of Nature often leads the mind from its Great Author.

The Catechism of Health; or plain and simple rules for the Preservation of the Health and Vigor of the Constitution from Infancy to Old Age. Philadelphia. Office of the Journal of Health. 18mo. pp. 135.

We have seen no work which exhibits, in the same space, so much valuable truth, for immediate practical application, in the preservation of health, as this neat and unassuming little volume. We could wish that its contents were familiar to every child; and we are confident that an early knowledge of its principles would save many an hour of suffering, perhaps many a year of disease. It is in the spirit of the Journal of Health; and like that useful work, is calculated to promote sound morals, no less than health.

We regret that it has taken the catechetical form. We doubt whether it is practicable, if it were expedient, to occupy sufficient time in our schools to commit it to memory; and we would suggest, as the best plan for works of this kind, that which is so familiar in the best books of Blair — of detached numbered paragraphs announcing the simplest and most important principles; and illustrated by facts or explanations in a smaller type. It might then be employed as a reading book; and its statements be the subject of examination by means of questions. It will also be important in instruction, if not in the work itself, to separate that portion designed only for parents, from those of general application.

Outlines of History, embracing a concise History of the World, from the earliest Period to the pacification of Europe, in 1815. Second American Edition, with Additions and a Set of Questions for examination of students. By JOHN FROST, A. M. 12 mo. pp. 466.

This book, as the title indicates, contains a sketch of the whole course of History, from the creation of the world to the present time. The style is very condensed and concise, so that a great number of facts are related in a very few words. The arrangement of the work is Chronological. It is divided into three parts, Ancient History, The History of the Middle Ages, and Modern History. The following are some of the heads of the chapters in Modern History, from which the reader will understand the plan. View of the State of Europe. Times of Charles V. Times of Philip II. Times of the Thirty Years' War. Times of Louis XIV. Period of Comparative Repose. Times of the French Revolution and Empire. The American Editor has added very copious questions, to facilitate its use as a text book.

The work itself appears to be of very elevated character, such as to render it suitable for use, in the higher institutions of our country.

American School Library, by Jesse Torrey, Jun.

Mr Torrey has recently completed the compilation of a series of Elementary School Books, for the use of Schools and Academies. It consists of the following works The prices of the volumes, full bound are annexed.

No. 1. 'The Primary Spelling Book,' 36 pages, 18 mo. 12½ cts. No. 2. 'A Familiar Spelling Book,' 120 pages, 12mo. 37½ cts. No. 3. 'A Pleasing Companion for little Girls and Boys,' 144 pages, 12mo. 50 cts. No. 4. 'A Mental Museum for the Rising Generation,' Vol. I. comprising Conversations on Natural History, and the Universe, Reflections on Providence, &c. 158 pages, 12mo. 56 cts. No. 5. 'A Mental Museum for the Rising Generation,' Vol. II. including miscellaneous articles, entertaining, moral, and political, 206 pages, 12mo. 69 cts. No. 6. 'The Moral Instructer, and Guide to Virtue,' 300 pages, 12mo. 75 cts.

Most of them are designed as reading books. The compiler does not propose them as substitutes for all others; for he thinks that books ought to be frequently changed. The series is highly recommended by teachers in the Middle States, and some of the books seem to have been adopted in Schools to a considerable extent. The following are the contents of the last Volume.

Part 1. Original Essays on the Diffusion of Knowledge, Moral, Reformation, &c. 2. Epitome of the Moral Precepts of the Bible. 3. Abridgment of the Lives and Moral Discourses of Confucius and Socrates, and Seneca's Morals. 4. Abridgment of the Law of Nature, and the Economy of Human Life. 5. Abridgment of Penn's Maxims, Paleys Moral Philosophy, and Knigge's Art of Conversing with Men. 6. Selections from Franklin's Works. 7. Miscellaneous Articles. 8. Pope's Essay on Man, &c.

An Elementary Treatise on Geometry, simplified for beginners not versed in Algebra. Part 2d, containing Solid Geometry, with its application to the Solution of Problems. By Francis J. Grund. Boston, Carter, Hendee & Babcock. Baltimore, Charles Carter. 1831. pp. 196.

Mr Grund's Plane Geometry is well known to teachers. It has been favorably received, and has, we believe, been fully approved upon trial. This second part is upon the same plan.

Modern writers on Geometry seem to be somewhat divided in opinion on the question, how closely, it is best to adhere to the rigid principles of the ancients in demonstration. It is evident that the more we may take for granted, the more short and simple, demonstration may become; and on the other hand by making axioms few, and by adhering strictly to rigid principles, our demonstrations must be complicated and difficult. Mr Grund has aimed at simplicity, and though to attain it he has sometimes *taken for granted* what Euclid has thought it necessary to *prove*, yet he does not, we believe, claim any thing that the mind will not readily admit. By taking this course he has made his book peculiarly valuable for general and popular use.

The Naturalist, Nos. 1, 2, and 3. Boston. 1831.

Three numbers of a new periodical entitled 'The Naturalist,' have already been issued at Boston. The contents of the March number are Botany, Man, White Ants, the Culture of Silk. The work is under the editorial care of D. J. Browne.

Encyclopedia Americana.

The fifth volume of this valuable work, extending from EVE. to GRE. is just published by Messrs Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.